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**The Influence of Work-Family Balance Based Realistic Job
Previews on Job Decisions in Academia**

by

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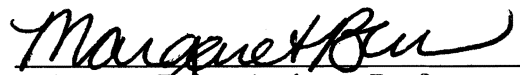
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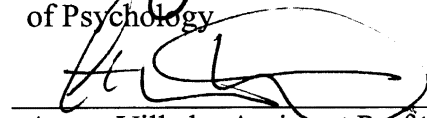
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ABSTRACT

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The present study utilized a realistic job preview to influence expectations of work-family balance. Using graduate students in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM), participants viewed a preview about a) work-family balance in academia, b) jobs in academia, c) or no preview (control condition). An average of five months later, participants who accepted academic jobs rated their hiring institutions on family-friendly policies. Participants in the work-family realistic job preview condition were able to answer declarative knowledge questions about work-family balance in academia more accurately than were those in the other conditions. Participants in both preview conditions experienced a shift in their expectations about academia. Finally, individuals in the work-family preview condition with higher levels of declarative knowledge had a better match between the work-family factors that they originally wanted in their job and what they received. This relationship was stronger for women than it was for men.

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The Influence of Work-Family Balance Based Realistic Job Previews on Job Decisions in Academia

The present research answers a call made by Mitchell (2007) to better prepare faculty members for the challenges in starting their academic careers. In his work, Mitchell argued that business school doctoral students require better job preview information, an assertion that the present research hopes to extend to science doctoral students. Mitchell suggested several content areas in which to prepare students, specifically finding a job and moving through the tenure process. In order to create better academicians, he proposed that they should receive more information about their chosen career path. The current research extends this proposal to include work-family balance information in addition to job information, as unsuccessful work-life balance has been shown to impact job outcomes (i.e., low job satisfaction, high turnover and absenteeism, low job performance; Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000).

In preparing for life in academia, graduate students are in a unique situation because they are being trained over several years in the technical components of their future careers by their future colleagues before being hired by an organization. The apprentice-type model employed by most graduate programs encourages students to develop the skills, knowledge, and ideas that they will use in their own laboratories. Graduate students tend to have only one primary responsibility—to be productive at work. The average faculty member employed in the United States works between 50 and 80 hours per week and graduate students may be encouraged to model that behavior (National Center for Education Statistics, 1998). Students focus mostly and singularly on work-related activities. As such, they may miss important knowledge about the difficulty

of juggling necessary work and family responsibilities. Graduate students spend a critical time period in their adult lives in graduate school when peers in their cohort who are not in academe are marrying and starting families. As such, the graduate school environment may retard the development of coping strategies for balancing work and family spheres that those with real-world experience have already developed. Graduate students often delay marriage and family. Many female academicians delay having children until after their tenure decision (Mason & Goulden, 2002). This could be several years after the age when the average woman has her first child ($M = 24.9$ years old; Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development, 2008). Furthermore, while graduate students are immersed in their technical training, they get little training (even imaginary) or information exchange about balancing work and family life. As a whole, graduate students are fairly unprepared to deal with the demands of work-life balance. It may be particularly difficult for women, who tend to do more of the household chores and child care. In previous generations, cultural norms encouraged the specialization of each adult family member into either the work or family sphere. However, current social realities indicate that each adult often contributes to both work and family demands. As family and work responsibilities take up the majority of most individuals' adult lives, it is important to evaluate how these roles can come together harmoniously.

Gaining information early in the job search process may lead to improved decision making while conducting the search and in the development of coping skills that lead to greater job success, decreased work-family conflict, and increased job satisfaction once in the job. The current research attempts to examine how communicating information about work-family issues may influence such outcomes. Specifically, will

work-family conflict information lead individuals to make different job search decisions? Such research is important for at least four reasons. First, this research will use the classic form of the industrial/organizational tool called the realistic job preview (Wanous, 1973) to impart knowledge about work-family information rather than the traditional job-related topics. No studies have used such a method to create more accurate expectations about work-family balance. Second, this study will take place pre-hire but post-training. This puts the research in a unique position of presenting information to individuals who have already made significant investments their vocation, but have not made specific organizational choices. Previous work has typically concentrated on new-hires who are individuals already somewhat committed to the organization because they have applied and been accepted as an employee (Wanous, 1978). This research, however, will be conducted before participants have made final employment decisions, allowing academicians the opportunity to change not only choices made once they accept a job offer, but also choices about the job itself. Third, this research will use information about jobs based at an industry level, rather than an organizational level, which should make the results of the analysis more generalizable to the academic population. Fourth and finally, this research will focus on a group of individuals, new hires in academia, with a particular focus on female faculty in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) who may face particular work-family problems due to particularly competitive work environments and a male-oriented culture in which they are often treated as tokens (Etzkowitz, Kemelgor, & Uzzi, 2000). Women and men in this field might particularly benefit from receiving work-family balance realistic job information. Thus, the current research may contribute to better preparing candidates, and particularly women, about

what lies ahead. In doing so, it is possible that those who enter academia may be more committed and less likely to turnover. In this manuscript, I will begin with a general overview of work-family balance. Then I will provide an overview of the realistic job previews, with a focus on the history, underlying mechanisms, and components of a successful a realistic job preview. Finally, I will describe the current study, predictions, and methodology.

Knowledge of the challenges that people face when they attempt to balance work and family may be particularly lacking for future academicians. That is, students may not consider or develop the skills and acquire the instrumental and emotional social support they need to balance their responsibilities until they find themselves fully embroiled in multiple and often conflicting roles. In an effort to better prepare future academicians for the situations that they may encounter in their lives, the present research adopts a popular tool from the applied literature, namely realistic job previews (e.g., Breugh, 1983; Hom, Griffeth, Palich, & Bracker, 1999; Wanous, 1973, 1978) to impart work and family balance information on workers new to the job market.

Work-Family Balance

Take a set of current graduate students and fast forward ten years. Instead of a singular focus on working, they are completely overwhelmed. Why? Now they have a job that is often even more stressful than graduate school and, additionally, they have family demands for which they are not prepared. Some may have learned work-family balance skills in graduate school, but many of those that did had to develop coping strategies on their own. The work and family spheres are the most prevalent roles and responsibilities that most people possess (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). As such, the mixing

of the two spheres is the topic of much research, which tends to adopt one of two perspectives when evaluating the work-family spheres. These the interaction of the two spheres is referred to as work-family balance or work-family conflict in the literature. Generally speaking, researchers categorize the positive side as work-family balance or facilitation and the negative side as work-family conflict (Frone, 2003). While these terms are part of the same overarching concept of work-family interface, they are not necessarily two ends of a dichotomy. The measurement and outcomes of the different conceptualizations make the terms distinct. For the purposes of this research, work-family balance is defined as the minimization of conflict between work and family roles through the balancing of time and resources. As such, the present research will focus on the facilitation of successful work-family role integration and the positive aspects of work-family balance, but will integrate research from the closely-related work-family conflict literature.

Work-family conflict has been linked with a number of negative work and life outcomes. A meta-analysis of work-family conflict revealed that regardless of the measure used, there was a significant negative relationship between work-family conflict and job and life satisfaction ratings (Ernst Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Furthermore, family conflict interfered with relationships on the job, specifically with the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Lapierre, Hackett, & Taggar, 2006). Family-work conflict, in which the demands of home life impede on work roles, was found to be most strongly related to stress in individualistic cultures, even when controlling for presence of domestic help (Spector et al., 2007). Conflict between work and family domains has been linked to worker distress, depression, burnout, and lower job and life satisfaction (Allen

et al., 2000; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). These research studies show that unsuccessful role balance affects work and home life negatively.

Contrary to the findings of negative job and life outcomes due to unsuccessful work-family balance, a number of positive outcomes have been linked to successful work-family balance as well. Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw (2003) found that individuals who *successfully* balanced their work and family roles exhibited higher quality of life, an indicator of personal well-being. In this study, successful balance was operationalized as spending time on, being involved in, and being satisfied with both roles while unsuccessful balance was marked by not spending time on one of the roles or being unsatisfied with the level of involvement allocated to a particular role. Additionally, family life can provide an important source of social support for workers, both emotionally and instrumentally (Caplan, 1976). The availability of social support can, in turn, increase job and life satisfaction (Adams, King, & King, 1996).

Some research has found that those who experience lower levels of work-family conflict do so by utilizing coping techniques—namely selection, optimization, and compensation—to mitigate the negative effects that they would otherwise experience (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003). In a sample of police officers, researchers found that work stress was positively related to work-family conflict, although the relationship was moderated by the perceived availability of family-friendly policies (Youngcourt & Huffman, 2005). Furthermore, and more central to the current study, greater perceived availability of family-friendly programs was significantly related to lower work-family conflict.

Research has shown that family-friendly policies, particularly flexible scheduling,

contribute to an individual's perception of control over his or her work environment and thereby decrease negative emotional, physiological, and behavioral symptoms associated with work-family conflict (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Another way for an organization to reduce the negative consequences of work-family conflict is to increase feelings of justice. Employees who perceive their organizations as just are able to better manage their work-family conflict (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). This would suggest that organizational support and flexibility can aid in balancing work and family responsibilities, perhaps because employees do not anticipate being unduly punished for inescapable conflicts between the two spheres. Clearly, family-friendly policies can help mitigate the negative consequences of work-family conflict. Family-friendly policies, such as flexible scheduling and caretaker leave, may allow individuals to balance their work and family roles successfully; however, at present, academicians do not seem to use all available policies (Quinn, Lange, & Olswang, 2004). In a study on family-friendly policy use in research universities, Quinn and colleagues found that many people found the communication, implementation, and tracking of family-friendly policies inconsistent and dependent on the views of the department chair. In spite of institutions' best efforts, it appears that academicians need to be self-educated in knowing what family-friendly policies for which they are qualified and how to obtain them. Additionally, the culture of an academic department may operate independently of the larger academic institution. Graduate students may lack the knowledge to ask about such policies during their job search—an issue that the present research addresses. The present research proposes one approach to communicating this information: a realistic job preview based on work-family considerations.

Realistic Job Previews

Realistic job previews are a mode of communicating information to a potential or new employee by an organization. They can include any kind of information, but tend to focus on cultural norms and rules in an attempt to provide a picture of how the organization expects employees to work and behave on the job so that employees may better judge their fit with the organization (Wanous, 1978). Organizations can deliver realistic job previews through several venues, including written booklets, audio-visual presentations, and/or lectures. However, the realistic job preview is more extensive than a simple instruction manual, typically including employee role clarifications that fall outside of company rules and regulations. For example, an organization's cultural norms about cleanliness or break time might be featured in a realistic job preview but not in an employee handbook. The end goal of a realistic job preview is to decrease employee turnover by increasing job satisfaction and job performance (Wanous, 1978).

Realistic job previews are helpful to both the organization and the individual. A realistic job preview often functions by removing the naïveté that leads to inaccurate initial expectations for an employee who is new that is to an organization (Wanous, 1978). Thus, employees come into the organization with more accurate expectations about the job, have higher job satisfaction and performance, and have lower turnover rates than if they had not been exposed to the realistic job preview. Lower turnover, in turn, decreases costs of recruitment and training for the organization. This is of particular relevance to an academic setting, in which the costs of hiring can be enormous. The usual hiring cycle for an academic job placement is one year and salary, start-up, and benefit costs can run into the millions of dollars (American Association of University Professors,

2009). As such, it is important to attract and retain individuals who will stay with and be productive at the institution for a reasonable amount of time.

The History of Realistic Job Previews

Realistic job previews have been utilized by organizations for almost 40 years and have produced a major stream of research until the mid to late 1990s. Early studies focused on the benefits of a realistic job preview in lowering employee turnover and increasing desirable work outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. One of the earliest field studies of realistic job previews had female telephone operators view a realistic job preview rather than a standard company orientation film (Wanous, 1973). Those in the realistic job preview condition had more accurate expectations about their job, had fewer turnover intentions, and, ultimately, had a lower attrition rate. In more current research, Buckley and colleagues (Buckley et al., 2002) found that a procedure to create more accurate expectations, particularly when used in conjunction with a realistic job preview, was a very effective measure for lowering turnover and in creating more accurate expectations about the work environment.

Mechanisms Underlying Realistic Job Previews

In a review of realistic job previews, Breugh (1983) cited four competing but not mutually exclusive mechanisms underlying the success of a realistic job previews on increasing performance and reducing turnover: 1) met expectations, 2) development of coping strategies, 3) perceptions of honesty, and 4) self-selection. Each of these mechanisms contributes to the overall positive effect of a realistic job preview and I will discuss each in turn. First, *met expectations* involve aligning one's actions to those of the

organization's explicit expectations, bringing the individual in line with the organization's values and goals. In fact, people will be more satisfied in situations where they hold an accurate representation of their environment because the accuracy allows them to cope better with forthcoming situations (Parker, 1997). For instance, an early study of gas station attendants found that those who were put through a realistic job preview had significantly more accurate expectations toward their jobs (e.g., knowledge about opportunities for advancement, job demands) than those who had not received a preview (Avner, Guastello, & Aderman, 1982). The theory of met expectations suggests that workers who know what is expected of them are more likely to fill their roles adequately. They know the structure of rewards and punishments in the organization and tend to be more satisfied with them when implemented.

Second, realistic job previews can trigger the *development of coping strategies* to overcome challenges. Coping strategies can take the form of emotion-focused coping or problem-focused coping (Hom et al., 1999). Emotional or personal coping strategies might include such behaviors as fostering sources of social support or engaging in stress management techniques, while problem-focus coping strategies include work-related actions such as engaging in more rigorous scheduling or organization techniques to minimize confusion. Ideally, any type of successful coping will lead to increased performance and satisfaction because employees have found ways to create organization fit between the organization and themselves. While realistic job previews create more accurate expectations, they do not decrease the difference between expectations and experience (Parker, 1997). Instead, job previews aid in the development of coping strategies for the employees subjected to them.

Third, individuals who receive realistic job previews are more likely to view their organization and the people in them as *honest and high in integrity* (Meglino & DeNisi, 1987; Wanous, 1978). In turn, employees who view the company as honest will have higher organizational commitment (Hom et al., 1999). That is, employees who believe that the organization will act in their personal best interests will, in turn, be more likely to operate in the organization's best interest. The realistic job preview gives people more accurate information about the expectations they should have, rather than give them an overly positive expectation. Therefore, employees may feel that they are being informed and do not have to distrust or question the organizational information they receive.

Fourth and finally, realistic job previews influence the process of *self-selection*. Consider that realistic job previews may make employees aware of the challenges of the job, realize their expectations may not be met, and question their person-organization fit. As a result of these and other outcomes associated with receiving realistic job previews, some may decide not to take a position with the organization (Wanous, 1978). This decreases the turnover rate by taking these employees out of the job pool before the organization has invested in their training and work. Realistic job previews allow potential workers to determine their fit with the organization, rather than relying on later performance or satisfaction problems to lead to involuntary (due to bad performance) or voluntary (due to low job satisfaction) turnover.

Components of a Successful Realistic Job Preview

Research on realistic job previews has revealed that the type of information, the elements involved, and the method of delivery are all important to consider when creating a realistic job preview. First, the realistic job preview has to get people's attention.

People have to remember the information presented and be able to apply it to themselves. The goal of any realistic job preview is knowledge transfer and in this study, I measured this with a declarative knowledge test taken immediately after the realistic job preview.

Second, the type of information presented in a realistic job preview varies by intent (Dilla, 1987). For example, in a prescriptive job preview, employees are given tactics and advice to acclimate them to the new organization (e.g., social norms). However, in a descriptive realistic job preview, employees are exposed to strictly objective information (e.g., task information). When it comes to descriptive versus prescriptive job previews, support has been found for descriptive previews (Dilla, 1987). Participants who participated in a descriptive process showed better accuracy in their expectations than those who participated in the prescriptive realistic job preview. The realistic job preview presented in this study incorporates prescriptive and descriptive elements. A fully descriptive preview demands that the organization be identified in the realistic job preview, a requirement that my design purposely did not have, as individuals participated *before* accepting a job offer.

Third, an important distinction between a realistic job preview and other recruiting materials is the use of positive, neutral, and negative information. Recruitment materials may be overly positive, hiding negative aspects of organizational rules and norms. A realistic job preview specifically addresses potentially negative information, because it is on this information that realistic expectations are formed (Wanous, 1978). Although information in a realistic job preview may make applicants aware of challenges that lead them to reconsider their commitment to obtaining a given position, in general, it appears that applicants prefer a realistic message about their job choice compared to an

overly positive message (Thorsteinson, Palmer, Wulff, & Anderson, 2004). In a comparison between recruitment brochures and realistic job previews, participants rated an organization as more credible and more attractive when they heard both positive and negative information than when they heard only positive information. The preview presented to participants in this study presented positive, negative, and neutral information.

Fourth, realistic job previews differ as a function of the method of delivery. Previous studies have used written, lecture, audio-visual, and/or multimedia presentations to impart organizational knowledge on new employees. While written booklets were fairly common in the early realistic job preview implementations, the influx of audio-visual based aides has made them obsolete in an applied setting. In a meta-analysis of 21 realistic job preview studies, researchers found that the method of presentation for the realistic job preview was the only significant moderator of outcomes for the variables typically associated with the preview (i.e., turnover, organizational commitment; Premack & Wanous, 1985). They found that in the context in which the previews were used (i.e., for post-hire information communication), an audio-visual presentation appeared to be a more effective means of communication (corrected $d = .32$, $r = .15$) than a written job preview booklet (Premack & Wanous, 1985). One of the reasons that written previews do not seem to be quite as effective as audio visual presentations may be due to the novelty and symbol variety inherent in multimedia presentations; therefore, multimedia presentation are thought to last longer in the minds of the viewer. For the purposes of this research, I used a multimedia presentation format in the form of a short video. Due to the nature of the present study, in which previews were given some time

before a job search, I believe the use of audio-visual materials increased the salience of the job preview, hopefully lessening the information loss that occurs naturally over time.

The Present Study and Hypotheses

The present study attempted to communicate work-family balance information to a group of academicians on the job market through a video-based realistic job preview. The study used an experimental design, in which participants were exposed to: a) a work-family-based realistic job preview, b) a job-related realistic job preview, or c) no video-based realistic job preview. I compared 1) expectations measured before and after the preview and 2) job search behaviors (i.e., work-family factors in the chosen job) measured at a later date as a function of condition.

Information disseminated through a realistic job preview allows current and potential employees to better evaluate their job choices by making them aware of challenges and creating more accurate expectations. Information about work-family balance and information on family-friendly policies in particular should be just as applicable in a realistic job preview setting as descriptive information about the job itself. As stated previously, one component of a successful realistic job preview is knowledge transfer. An individual who is able to recall information about the topic of the realistic job preview should demonstrate better declarative knowledge on a follow-up test, which will show greater information transference than someone who does not have as much declarative knowledge. As it relates specifically to the current study, it was hypothesized that:

- H1: Participants exposed to a work-family balance realistic job preview will exhibit more accurate declarative knowledge about work-family balance

conditions specific to their field than those who have seen a job-related realistic job preview (H1a) or no realistic job preview (H1b).

I contend that individuals who have access to accurate information will use it to develop accurate expectations about their future in both work and family contexts. They will do so through the four mechanisms described previously, namely by a) creating accurate expectations, b) developing coping strategies, c) perceiving academia as acting with honesty and integrity, and d), considering their commitment to academia (and self-selecting out in some cases). I anticipated that individuals exposed to a work-family balance realistic job preview would express more awareness of the challenges they face in academia, just as research on job-related realistic job previews has shown. Therefore, I hypothesized that:

- H2: Participants who have been exposed to a work-family balance-related preview will show a larger difference (as measured before and after viewing the video-based realistic job preview) on a measure of perceptions of accurate expectations about academia (H2a), the need to develop coping strategies (H2b), perceptions of organizational honesty and integrity (H2c), and likelihood of remaining in academia (H2d) than will participants who have been exposed to a job-related realistic job preview or no realistic job preview.

The present research is focused on encouraging individuals to choose employment opportunities based, at least partially, on the extent to which they offer opportunities for work-family balance. Previous research has not addressed specifically the problems of shifting lifestyle norms and the importance of balancing the work and family spheres,

although some researchers have taken steps in that direction. For instance, researchers have shown a significant, positive impact of family-friendly policies (namely, scheduling flexibility and dependent care assistance) on job pursuit intentions (Casper & Buffardi, 2004). Moreover, participants view organizations with these policies as being more supportive than organizations with no family-friendly policies in place. Because of this anticipated social support, participants are more likely to pursue a job at an academic institution with more family-friendly policies than at an academic institution with fewer family-friendly policies. Additional research has shown that applicants are attracted to organizations that they perceive as having flexible career paths (Carless & Wintle, 2007). That is, participants who saw the portrayal of a flexible career path versus a traditional career path were more attracted to the organization offering flexibility, at least during the initial stages of recruitment. When the choice between a rigid environment and a malleable environment is salient, it appears that people opt for the situation that will offer flexibility. I propose that a work-family realistic job preview will give individuals the information about the need for family-friendly policies that will lead them to look for jobs with these policies. Specifically, I hypothesize that:

- H3: Participants exposed to a work-family realistic job preview will seek out more information related to work-family policies during their job search (H3a-c), rate their chosen department as more family-friendly (H3d), and choose jobs with more published family-friendly policies on their websites (H3e) than will participants who have been exposed to a job-related realistic job preview or those who were not exposed to a realistic job preview (control).

The type of resources being offered and the type of environment in which resources will be used are essential components to the success of family-friendly policies. Beyond that, there is an obvious advantage in having knowledge about the type of organization that will support work-family balance. There are gender differences found in previous research that link higher levels of work-family conflict with women, presumably because they often shoulder the majority of childcare and household responsibilities (Allen et al., 2000). The goal of the present study is to disseminate information on the importance of work-family balance and to evaluate the decisions that both men and women may make with such information. I propose that men and women who have gleaned more from the presentation will be better able to use this information to choose an environment that suits them. In terms of the current study, I predict that:

H4a: Participants exposed to a work-family realistic job preview who have higher scores on the work-family portion of the declarative knowledge test will choose jobs that have higher ratings on the three measures of family-friendly policies (i.e., family-friendly information sought during the job search, the family-friendly ratings of the department, and family-friendly policy rating of the institution).

H4b: This relationship will be stronger for female than for male participants.

Method

Participants

The vast majority of the female participants (97.3%) were recruited through a Rice University ADVANCE grant, an NSF initiative to increase the presence of women in STEM fields. Male participants were solicited through women who had already

participated in the study (11.1%) and through e-mail solicitations (88.9%). All participants received an e-mail solicitation inviting them to participate in the study. As an incentive, the first 300 men and first 300 women to complete the entire survey received a \$25 gift card to a major retailer.

A total of 906 doctoral and post-doctoral graduate students in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) fields participated in the first phase of this study. A total of 470 participants completed the second phase of data collection. Thus, 51.8% of the participants completed both phases of the data collection. The participants were mostly female, with 552 women participating (60.9%) compared to 322 men (35.5%). The remaining 32 participants (3.5%) did not indicate a gender. Most participants indicated their race as White (62.6%), followed by Asian (22.6%), Latino (6.0%), Black (4.2%), and Native American (0.4%). Less than five percent of the participants chose not to indicate a race or selected an option marked "other."

In terms of demographic information, participants said they were married (45.2%), single (30.7%), in a long-term relationship (23.0%), and divorced or widowed (1.1%). Most participants saw marriage as part of their future plans (82.3%). Participants had between zero and one child(ren) at the time of the survey ($M = 0.29$). Over 80% of the participants did not have children at phase one of data collection. However, most (83%) planned to have children in the future ($M = 1.98$).

Phase one job search demographic information. A total of 35.9% of the sample indicated that they were currently seeking employment during the initial phase of data collection, although 55.4% indicated that they would be on the job market within the next six months. When asked how long they planned to seek employment, participants

indicated that they would seek employment until they found a job (68.6%), or would seek employment for a maximum of one hiring cycle (8.2%), two hiring cycles (17.1%), or three hiring cycles (6.2%). When asked to indicate where they estimated the majority of their job-seeking peers were in their job searches, participants indicated that their peers were currently going on interviews (42.3%), just beginning their searches (37.8%), waiting for job offers (18.7%), or currently accepting job offers (1.2%).

When asked how many on-site interviews they had been to that year, participants indicated that they had not been on any on-site interviews at the time of the survey (77.5%), or that they had been on one interview (12.3%), two interviews (6.9%), three interviews (2.3%), or four or more interviews (0.9%). Similarly, participants indicated that they had: not received a job offer at the time of the survey (80.9%); or that they had one job offer (14.0%), two job offers (3.4%), or three or more job offers (1.8%). When asked if they had already accepted a full-time academic position, 12.7% indicated that they had, with most accepting positions as post-doctoral students, research scientists, lecturers, or assistant professors. When asked what type of institution best represented where they would like to work, they indicated they would prefer an institution with a primary emphasis on research (55.5%), followed by a preference for an institution that emphasized teaching and research equally (23.7%), an institution with a primary emphasis on teaching (20.2%), or industry (0.6%).

Phase two job search demographic information. In the second phase of data collection, participants indicated their presence and success on the job market since the first phase of data collection. When asked if they had accepted a job offer within the past six months, 29.4% of participants indicated that they had. Participants indicated that they

were currently students (71.2%) or post docs (24.7%). When asked if they had extended their time in graduate school or their post doc, 43.8% of participants indicated that they had done so, although 38.1% said that they had planned on getting a job that year.

Participants indicated their attraction to academic and non-academic jobs on Likert-style scales ranging from 1 (*not at all attracted to this job*) to 7 (*extremely attracted to this job*). Participants indicated that they were attracted to academic jobs ($M = 5.72$; $SD = 1.59$) and non-academic jobs ($M = 4.23$; $SD = 1.71$).

All participants answered a series of questions regarding their success on the job market. In terms of academic positions, participants received between zero and five official job offers ($M = .61$; $SD = 1.02$), between zero and 15 phone interviews ($M = .83$; $SD = 1.78$), and between zero and 15 on-site interviews ($M = .86$; $SD = 1.59$). When asked how many official job offers they turned down, participants indicated that they had not turned down a job (83.8%), turned down one job offer (10.2%), or turned down two or more job offers (6.0%). When asked how many on-site interviews that had turned down, participants indicated that they had not turned down any on-site interviews (89.6%), turned down one on-site interview (7.2%), or turned down two or more on-site interviews (3.2%). Participants who indicated that they had accepted a job offer answered two additional questions about their academic job search: how many potential offers that terminated early as a result of taking a job and their estimate of the number of job offers that they would have received had they continued their job search. Participants in this group indicated that they had terminated less than one potential academic job offer early ($N = 130$; $M = .94$; $SD = 2.17$) and that they would probably have received two academic job offers ($N = 124$; $M = 1.78$; $SD = 1.84$).

In terms of non-academic positions, participants received between zero and four job offers ($M = .26$; $SD = .67$), between zero and ten phone interviews ($M = .44$; $SD = 1.20$), between zero and three on-site interviews ($M = .28$; $SD = .67$). When asked how many official job offers they turned down for non-academic jobs, participants indicated that they had not turned down a job (91.6%), turned down one job offer (5.6%), or turned down two or more job offers (2.8%). When asked how many on-site interviews that had turned down, participants indicated that they had not turned down any on-site interviews (95.9%), turned down one on-site interview (2.8%), or turned down two or more on-site interviews (1.3%). Participants who indicated that they had accepted a job offer answered two additional questions about their non-academic job search: how many potential offers that terminated early as a result of taking a job and their estimate of the number of non-academic job offers that they would have received had they continued their job search. Participants in this group indicated that they had terminated less than one potential non-academic job offer early ($N = 130$; $M = .41$; $SD = 1.24$) and that they would probably have received one non-academic job offers ($N = 126$; $M = .86$; $SD = 1.4$).

Procedure

In Phase 1 of data collection, participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions: work-family realistic job preview, job-based realistic job preview, and a control condition. Each condition's survey shared several measures, but also included measures unique to the condition.

Several months after the first solicitation, I contacted participants who completed the survey and included their contact information. In the second e-mail solicitation, I asked participants to complete a 10-minute follow-up study regarding their job search.

Table 1 lists all of the measures presented to participants in each condition of Phase 1 as well as the measures presented in Phase 2. Participants responded to the surveys from the two phases an average of 5 months apart.

Measures

As previously mentioned, I collected data for this study in two phases. In the first phase, participants were exposed to the realistic job preview manipulation, a measure of their job expectations, and a declarative knowledge test. In the second phase of study, I asked participants about the results of their job search.

Phase 1 Materials

Impressions of Academia. I measured impressions of academia by adapting Hom and colleagues (1999) model of the four mechanisms driving realistic job preview effectiveness. From this model, I created sixteen items, four per mechanism (i.e., 1) having met expectations about the organization, 2) developing coping strategies, 3) viewing the organization as honest, and 4) having the ability to self-select out of the organization). To assess *met expectations*, participants rated their agreement with the following items: “I believe that I have accurate expectations about academia,” “I am aware of the reality of academia,” “I know about the expectations that I should have toward academia,” and “I have clear expectations about a job in academia.” To assess expectations about using *coping strategies* in academia, participants rated their agreement with following items: “I will engage in behaviors that will make me more successful in academia,” “I will use available information to make myself more successful,” “I will develop strategies to increase my success in academia,” and “I realize that I need to harness coping strategies to be successful.” To assess participants’ views of academic

institutions as *honest*, participants rated their agreement with the following items: “I feel that academic institutions are trustworthy,” “I feel that my institution will act honestly in its dealings with me,” “I feel that academic institutions want me to succeed,” and “I feel that academic institutions will equip me to be successful.” To assess the likelihood that participants would remain in (i.e., not *self-select* out of) academia, participants rated their agreement with the following items: “I feel sure that I want to go into academics,” “I do not often reconsider my intention to work in academia,” “I feel happy to self-select into this profession,” and “I feel confident that I want to pursue this career.” Participants rated all items on seven-point Likert-type scales that ranged from 1 (*not at all* agree) to 7 (*very strongly* agree). The individual sub-scales had alphas of .81 (coping behaviors), .87 (organizational honesty), .90 (accurate expectations), and .91 (self-selection). The items for the scale can also be found in Appendix A.

Realistic Job Preview. In the first experimental condition, participants viewed a realistic job preview about selected *work-family-related characteristics of academia*. The video showed four example academicians presenting advice and published data about work-family concerns and benefits for academicians in the field spliced with information screens with printed text (white font on black background) reiterating the verbally presented material. Example information included the average number of children had by academicians and the family-related benefits of working in an academic institution (e.g., flexible scheduling, campus community life). The information presented came from published data on studies of academicians (e.g., Adams et al., 1996; Mason & Goulden, 2004, 2002) and lasted about eight minutes. For a complete transcript of the work-family-related realistic job preview, see Appendix B.

Table 1. Order of measures presented by condition (Phase 1) and job search outcome (Phase 2)

Phase 1		
[Work-Family Realistic Job Preview]	[Job-Based Realistic Job Preview]	[No Realistic Job Preview]
Current Job Search Questionnaire	Current Job Search Questionnaire	Current Job Search Questionnaire
Demographic Information	Demographic Information	Demographic Information
Impressions of Academia	Impressions of Academia	Impressions of Academia
Work-Family RJP	Job-Based RJP	
Declarative Knowledge	Declarative Knowledge	Declarative Knowledge
Follow-up Impressions of Academia	Follow-up Impressions of Academia	
Manipulation Check	Manipulation Check	
Participant Reimbursement	Participant Reimbursement	Participant Reimbursement
[END of Phase1]	[END of Phase1]	[END of Phase1]
Phase 2		
Job Search Results Questionnaire		
[YES]	[Accepted Job?]	[NO]
Name of Hiring Institution		[END of Phase 2]
Job and Work-Family Characteristics of the Hiring Institution		
Perception of Departmental Family- Friendly Policies		
[END of Phase 2]		

In the second realistic job preview condition, participants viewed a realistic job preview about selected *job-related characteristics of academia*. The video showed four example academicians presenting advice and published data about academicians in the field spliced with information screens with printed text (white font on black background) reiterating the verbally presented material. Example information included the average number of hours spent on research by academicians, the average starting salaries in academia, and common tasks for academicians. The video was based on actual governmental data as well as published materials aimed at career development (e.g., Goldsmith, Komlos, & Gold, 2001; National Center for Education Statistics, 1998) and lasted for about eight minutes. For a complete transcript of the job-based realistic job preview, see Appendix C.

Participants in the *control condition* did not view either of the previously mentioned realistic job previews. Rather, these participants simply took the survey without knowledge of the information presented in either of the realistic job preview conditions. Thus, their job choices at Phase 2 (which I will describe) were used as a point of comparison for the experimental conditions.

Declarative knowledge. Immediately following the realistic job preview, all participants answered a series of questions designed to test their declarative knowledge. Items on the test consisted of information from both of the realistic job previews, with fifteen questions from the work-family realistic job preview and fifteen questions from the job-related realistic job preview. Because each participant viewed only one of the two available previews at most, it was impossible that any given participant could have been exposed to more than half of the information on the test. The test included multiple

choice items that had between three and five possible responses. I assigned correct responses one point and incorrect responses zero points. Scores were summed for each half of the questions and for the test as a whole. Sample declarative knowledge questions included: “What proportion of tenured faculty women have children in their household 12-14 years after earning their Ph.D.?” (Mason & Goulden, 2002) for the questions referencing the work-family realistic job preview and “How many hours per week does the average tenured faculty member work?” (Goldsmith et al., 2001) for the questions referencing the job-related realistic job preview. The two realistic job preview videos explicitly presented participants with all answers to the questions on the declarative knowledge test. For a copy of the work-family-related questions on the declarative knowledge test and the correct responses, see Appendix D. For a copy of the job-related questions on the declarative knowledge test and the correct responses, see Appendix E.

Follow-up Impressions of Academia. Participants in the two experimental conditions responded to the same sixteen statements about their expectations of academia as they had before the video realistic job preview. Again, participants rated their agreement with the statements. The questions were nearly identical, with the only changed feature being a change in the framing. To provide context, we added the phrase “As a result of seeing this video” before each of the statements. Thus, “I believe that I have accurate expectations about academia” became “As a result of seeing this video, I believe that I have accurate expectations about academia.” Participants rated all items on seven-point Likert-type scales that ranged from 1 (*not at all agree*) to 7 (*very strongly agree*). For the four individual sub-scales, the met expectation scale had a Cronbach’s alpha of .90, coping had a Cronbach’s alpha of .91, organizational honesty had a

Cronbach's alpha of .93, and self-selection had a Cronbach's alpha of .91. The items for the scale can be found in Appendix A.

Manipulation Check. Participants in experimental conditions rated eight items for the perceived effectiveness of the realistic job preview. Participants rated the items on seven-point Likert-type scales that ranged from 1 (*not at all agree*) to 7 (*very strongly agree*). Sample questions were: "This video was informative," "Learning this information strengthens my commitment to my chosen profession," and "This video did little to change my beliefs about academia." A list of items can be found in Appendix F.

Phase 2 Materials

Job Search Results. In the second phase of data collection, participants updated me on their employment choices. In particular, participants indicated if they had accepted a job offer since Phase 1. Those who had not accepted jobs answered questions specific to their situation (i.e., if they extended their time in their graduate program or post-doc, and if they had planned on getting a job). Participants also described their present situation and their current job search. In particular, they indicated: a) their level of attraction to academic and/or non-academic jobs, b) job offers they had received both within and outside academia, and c) how many phone interviews and on-site interviews they had completed and/or turned down in academic and non-academic positions.

Participants who had accepted job offers described their hiring organization, then answered the same set of questions about their job search as had the participants who had not accepted offers. These questions included: a) their level of attraction to academic and non-academic jobs, b) the number of job offers they had received, c) the number of phone interviews and on-site interviews they had completed and/or turned down in academic or

non non-academic positions. Participants then indicated (on open-ended items) additional considerations that they made during their job search. In particular, participants indicated: a) why they chose the organization that they did and b) alternative organizations where they had considered accepting a job offer. A complete list of questions asked of participants who had and had not accepted job offers can be found in Appendix G.

Job and Work-Family Characteristics of the Hiring Institution. Additionally, participants who had accepted *an academic job* completed three sets of items aimed at probing aspects of their job search. Participants rated their agreement with 25 items related job- and work-family-related aspects of their chosen organization. Example items included: “Ability to stop the tenure clock for family reasons (e.g., elder-care),” “Amount of committee work/service to the institution required,” “Availability of childcare,” “Availability of resources within the department,” and “Flexibility in selection of courses to teach.” Participants rated each of the 25 items three times. The first time, they indicated their extent to which their current situation matched their *original* desire for an institution on seven-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (*not at all a match with my ideal*) to 7 (*extremely matches my ideal*). The second time, they rated these same items, on the correspondence between their ideal and actual institution characteristics on seven-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (*not at all a match with my actual*) to 7 (*extremely matches my actual*). The third time, they rated these items based on how much information they sought about that item during their job search. Ratings were made on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*did not seek any information*) to 7 (*sought all the information I could*). For participant ratings of the extent to which their current situation matched their *original* desire for an institution, the work-family-related items

had a reliability of .76 and the job-related items had a reliability of .88. For participant ratings of the correspondence between their ideal and actual institution characteristics, the work-family-related items had a reliability of .77 and the job-related items had a reliability of .89. Finally, for participant ratings of the amount of information they sought during their job search, the work-family-related items had a reliability of .83 and the job-related items had a reliability of .94. For a complete list of items, see Appendix H.

Perception of Departmental Family-Friendly Policies. Participants who accepted a job offer rated their agreement with a series of ten statements about their impressions of their new department where they accepted. The items probed impressions specifically related to family-friendly policies in the hiring department. Sample items included: “From my conversations with faculty in the department, it seems like this place cares a lot about female faculty members,” “Given what I have seen in this department, faculty have a fairly easy time balancing work and family,” “From what I have seen, discrimination on the basis of gender is common in this department” (reverse-scored). Participants rated all items on seven-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). A Cronbach’s alpha of .91 was found for this measure. A complete list of items can be found in Appendix I.

Published Family-Friendly Policies. Participants who accepted an academic job were asked to name their hiring institution. A total of five independent raters evaluated the institution’s published human resource (HR) policies based on information available on their website with at least three raters coding each website. Raters answered a series of 22 yes/no questions. Raters were instructed to mark “yes” if the question was “true of this organization” and “no” if the question was “not true of this organization.” Sample items

include “Is the tenure clock stopped for family leave?” and “Does the organization offer any onsite childcare?” Each “yes” response was assigned one point, while “no” responses were assigned zero points. The points were summed to provide an overall score of published family-friendly policies that ranged from zero to 22 possible points. The interrater reliability of this measure was .86. A complete list of items can be found in Appendix J.

Pilot Data

I pilot tested the two realistic job previews (work-family and job-related) and the entire declarative knowledge test on 42 participants to ensure that the manipulations worked as hypothesized and that the questions asked in the test did not exhibit floor or ceiling effects. Of the 42 participants (none of whom participated in the actual study), eighteen were randomly assigned to the control condition, in which participants saw neither realistic job preview and only saw the test. The average score for the work-family-related portion of the test was 7.00/15.00 points ($SD = 2.11$). The average score for these participants on the job-related portion of the test was 8.00/15.00 points ($SD = 1.88$). Therefore, the average combined score for individuals in the control condition was 15.00/30.00 points (50%; $SD = 2.04$).

Ten participants viewed the work-family realistic job preview condition. In this condition, participants watched a realistic job preview depicting work-family characteristics specifically related to academia before taking the 30-item test. The average score for the work-family-related portion of the test was 12.00/15.00 points ($SD = 1.33$). The average score for these participants on the job-related portion of the test was 8.80/15.00 points ($SD = 1.62$). Therefore, the average combined score for individuals in

the control condition was 20.80/30.00 points (69.3%; $SD = 2.19$).

The remaining twelve participants viewed the job-related realistic job preview condition. In this condition, participants watched a realistic job preview depicting job characteristics specifically related to academia before taking the 30-item test. The average score for the work-family-related portion of the test was 7.58/15.00 points ($SD = 1.93$). The average score for these participants on the job-related portion of the test was 12.93/15.00 points ($SD = 1.54$). Therefore, the average combined score for individuals in the control condition was 20.51/30.00 points (68.3%; $SD = 3.20$).

I compared scores for each section of the declarative knowledge test between the group that watched the related realistic job preview and the *two* groups that did not watch the corresponding preview. Thus, the work-family score was compared with a *t*-test between the work-family realistic job preview condition and the job realistic job preview and control conditions combined. Likewise, I compared the job score with a *t*-test between the job realistic job preview condition and the work-family realistic job preview and control conditions combined. Those exposed to a work-family-related realistic job preview exhibited greater skill at answering work-family-related declarative knowledge questions than did those in the other conditions ($t(38) = 6.92, p < .001$). Similarly, those exposed to a job-related realistic job preview exhibited greater skill at answering job-related declarative knowledge questions than did those in the other conditions ($t(40) = 8.24, p < .001$). Also of note, only participants in the corresponding realistic job preview condition answered all questions from that part of the test correctly. Five individuals in the job-related realistic job preview scored fourteen or fifteen points on the job-related section of the declarative knowledge test. Two individuals in the work-family-related

realistic job preview condition scored fourteen points on the work-family-related section of the declarative knowledge test. Therefore, I determined that the realistic job preview transferred information to participants in a measurable way.

Results

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics and correlations of the demographic variables as reported by the study participants, split by their randomly assigned condition. The measure of accurate expectations was created for this study. The descriptive statistics, intercorrelations, and reliabilities of the measure can be found in Table 3. Table 4 presents the means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliabilities of the observed outcome measures by condition. All data was normally distributed.

Table 2. Intercorrelations of Participant Demographic Variables by Condition

	Descriptive Statistics			Correlations						
	Mean	SD	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Work-Family RJP	.33	.47	906							
2 Job RJP	.33	.47	906							
3 Control RJP	.33	.47	906							
4 Gender	.37	.48	874	-.03	-.01	.04				
5 Marital Status (married vs. not married)	.45	.50	874	.02	-.02	0	-.04			
6 Future Marriage	1.27	.62	874	0	-.08	.08	-.01	-.21		
7 Number of Children	.29	.67	869	.03	-.07	.04	.06	.42	-.03	
8 Future Number of Children	1.98	.92	840	-.03	.02	.01	.01	.12	-.28	.20

Note: $p < .05$ in boldface

Gender: 0 = Female; 1 = Male

Marital Status: 0 = Not Married; 1 = Married

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics, Intercorrelations, and Reliabilities for Accurate Expectation Measure (H2)

	Descriptive Statistics			Correlations and Reliabilities							
	Mean	SD	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Pre-RJP Belief in Accurate											
1 Expectations	4.78	1.08	864	(.90)							
Pre-RJP Need to Develop											
2 Coping Strategies	5.54	1.01	864	.48	(.81)						
Pre-RJP Perception of											
3 Academia as Honest	4.59	1.15	864	.33	.41	(.87)					
Pre-RJP Likelihood of											
4 Remaining in Academia	4.59	1.56	864	.39	.44	.42	(.91)				
Post-RJP Belief in Accurate											
5 Expectations	4.71	1.18	516	.28	.26	.28	.26	(.90)			
Post-RJP Need to Develop											
6 Coping Strategies	4.53	1.50	516	.14	.30	.33	.22	.65	(.91)		
Post-RJP Perception of											
7 Academia as Honest	4.18	1.39	516	.13	.19	.55	.21	.54	.66	(.93)	
Post-RJP Likelihood of											
8 Remaining in Academia	4.33	1.66	516	.28	.27	.33	.67	.47	.45	.47	(.91)

Note: All correlations are significant at $p < .01$

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics, Intercorrelations, and Reliabilities of Outcome Measures by Condition

	Descriptive Statistics			Correlations												
	Mean	SD	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Work-Family RJP	.33	.47	278													
2 Job RJP	.33	.47	214													
3 Control RJP	.33	.47	906													
4 Declarative knowledge test score on work-family portion	8.06	2.94	777	.55	-.25	-.32										
5 Declarative knowledge test score on job portion	9.22	2.88	777	-.23	.57	-.36	-.06									
6 Correspondence between Ideal and Actual WF Factors	4.00	1.52	97	.01	-.09	.08	0	-.02	(.76)							
7 Correspondence between Ideal and Actual Job Factors	4.66	1.22	97	.04	-.07	.04	.07	-.02	.71	(.88)						
8 Correspondence Between Original and Actual WF Factors	3.31	1.66	93	.21	-.06	-.16	0	.08	.34	.33	(.77)					
9 Correspondence Between Original and Actual Job Factors	3.83	1.58	93	.25	-.08	-.18	.08	.04	.16	.35	.82	(.89)				
10 Information Sought About WF Factors	2.96	1.73	90	.10	-.06	-.05	-.07	.08	.37	.25	.64	.54	(.83)			
11 Information Sought About Job Factors	3.95	1.82	90	.08	.05	-.15	-.07	.17	.18	.36	.62	.74	.75	(.94)		
12 Department Family-Friendliness	50.91	10.81	90	.09	-.09	0	.02	.04	.12	.27	.42	.42	.12	.26	(.91)	
13 HR Family-Friendly Policy Ratings	14.58	2.46	92	-.15	.04	.12	-.12	.05	-.10	-.08	-.19	-.13	-.19	-.19	-.12	(.86)

Note: $p < .05$ in boldface

Tests of the Hypotheses

Hypotheses 1 stated that participants exposed to a work-family balance realistic job preview would exhibit more accurate declarative knowledge about work-family balance conditions specific to their field than would those who saw either a job-related realistic job preview (H1a) or no realistic job preview (H1b). I tested this hypothesis using two separate ANOVAs. H1a compared two conditions, work-family realistic job preview and job-related realistic job preview, as the independent fixed factor variable. Likewise, H1b compared two conditions, work-family realistic job preview and the control condition (no realistic job preview), as the independent fixed factor variable. I used participants' scores on the work-family portion of the declarative knowledge test as the dependent variable. Before running the experiment, I conducted a power analysis to determine the approximate number of participants I would need to achieve a power of .85. In order to find a medium effect with two groups, I needed more than 146 participants and I had enough participants ($N = 559$ & 492) to achieve this power (See Table 5).

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics for Hypothesis 1

Condition	N	Mean	S.D.	Covariate-Adjusted Mean
Job-Related RJP	281	7.07	2.340	7.08
Work-Family RJP (H1a)	278	10.21	2.781	10.20
Control (No RJP)	214	6.52	2.080	6.53
Work-Family RJP (H1b)	278	10.21	2.781	10.21

As predicted, results fully supported Hypothesis 1a. That is, participants in the work-family realistic job preview condition earned significantly higher scores on the work-family portion of the declarative knowledge test than did those in the job-related realistic job preview condition, $F(1,561) = 211.35$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .27$.

Hypothesis 1b was also fully supported. That is, participants in the work-family realistic job preview condition earned significantly higher scores on the work-family portion of the declarative knowledge test than did those in the control condition (in which participants did not view a realistic job preview), $F(1,494) = 266.55, p < .001, \eta^2 = .35$.

Hypothesis 2 stated that participants exposed a work-family balance-related preview would show a larger change in their expectations before and after viewing a realistic job preview than would individuals who had not seen this realistic job preview. Specifically, participant ratings of the belief that they hold accurate expectations (H2a), the belief that they would need to develop coping strategies (H2b), the perceived honesty and integrity of academic institutions (H2c), and the likelihood that they would remain in academia (H2d) would change (compared to the pre-realistic job preview expectations) and that this would occur more so for individuals in the work-family realistic job preview condition than for individuals in the job-related realistic job preview condition. First, I ran a regression of the post-realistic job preview expectations measures on condition, controlling for pre-realistic job preview expectations. Second, I used a repeated measure ANOVA with planned contrasts to pinpoint the effects. The independent variable in the ANOVA was the type of realistic job preview that the participant viewed (work-family, job-related, or no realistic job preview) and the dependent variables were the scores on the four expectation measures given before and after the realistic job preview. An omnibus repeated measure ANOVA compared differences in the measured groups and planned contrasts measured differences in scores on the post-realistic job preview as compared to the pre-realistic job preview control condition. Participants in the control condition took only the pre-realistic job preview measures, because it I assumed that

there would be no material change between the two measures if I presented no preview. Before running the experiment, I conducted a power analysis to determine the approximate number of participants I would need to achieve a power of .85 for each hypothesis. In order to find a medium effect with six groups, I needed more than 251 participants, and I had enough participants ($N = 781$) to achieve this power.

Hypothesis 2a was partially supported by the data. A regression of post-realistic job preview ratings of possessing accurate expectations about academia on realistic job preview condition controlling for pre-realistic job preview rating showed that condition did not predict rating over and above the participant's pre-realistic job preview rating (Model 2 Adjusted $R^2 = .24$, $\Delta R^2 < .01$, $p = .28$). The model is depicted in Table 6.

Table 6. Influence of Condition on Post-Realistic Job Preview Participant Ratings of Possessing Accurate Expectations About Academia

	Model 1	Model 2
Pre-RJP Belief in Accurate Expectation	.49**	.50**
Work-Family RJP v. All Other Conditions		-.05
Job RJP v. All Other Conditions		0
Control v. All Other Conditions		.
Adjusted R^2	.24	.24
R^2	.24	.25
ΔR^2		< .01

$N = 781$

** $p < .001$

Despite the regression results, I undertook an analysis of group differences to find potential mean differences across condition and time. The omnibus repeated-measures ANOVA did not reveal a significant difference between the three realistic job preview conditions over the two time points, $F(2,778) = 1.321$, $p = .27$, $\eta^2 < .01$; however, the planned contrasts revealed that the post-realistic job preview expectations of those in the

work-family realistic job preview condition were significantly different from the expectations of those in the control condition, $F(1,778) = 6282.12, p < .001, d = .08$. Additional contrasts revealed that there were no significant differences between the three conditions in time one, indicating that the difference in the time two score is attributable to the realistic job preview. Unfortunately, I cannot claim that it the work-family realistic job preview *in particular* changed individuals' expectations, as the planned comparison between the control condition and the job-related realistic job preview condition was also significant, $F(1,778) = 6361.38, p < .001, d = .03$. The difference between the two realistic job preview conditions (work-family and job-related) was not significant, $F(1,778) = .152, p = .70$. The mean scores for each group included in the ANOVA are illustrated in Figure 1. Thus, the decrease in accurate expectation rating indicates that those in the work-family and job-related realistic job preview conditions felt less sure that they held realistic expectations about academia after viewing the realistic job preview than they did before viewing the realistic job preview. Furthermore, it appears that something about both realistic job previews altered expectations. Part one of the hypothesis was supported as there was a change from pre- to post-realistic job preview. However, the second part of the hypothesis, that the change would be greater in the work-family condition than in the job-related condition was not confirmed.

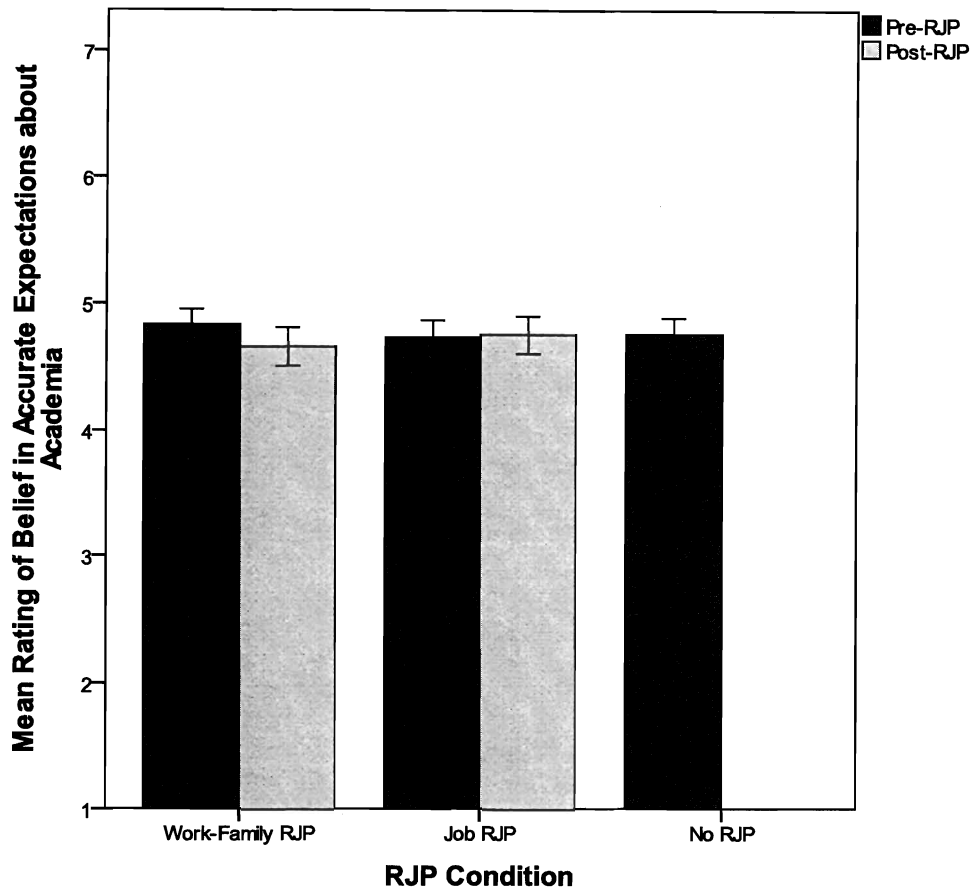


Figure 1. Influence of condition on post-realistic job preview participant ratings of possessing accurate expectations about academia. Error bars represent ± 2 SE.

As predicted, hypothesis 2b was partially supported by the data. A regression of post-realistic job preview ratings of understanding the need to develop coping strategies in academia on realistic job preview condition controlling for pre-realistic job preview rating showed that condition predicted rating over and above the participant's pre-realistic job preview rating (Model 2 Adjusted $R^2 = .31$, $\Delta R^2 = .11$, $p < .001$). The model is depicted in Table 7. Additionally, I undertook an analysis of group differences to find potential mean differences across condition and time. The omnibus repeated-measures ANOVA revealed a significant difference between the three realistic job preview

Table 7. Influence of Condition on Post-Realistic Job Preview Participant Ratings of the Need to Develop Coping Strategies in Academia

	Model 1	Model 2
Pre-RJP Need for Developing Coping Strategies	.45**	.46**
Work-Family RJP v. All Other Conditions	.	.
Job RJP v. All Other Conditions		0
Control v. All Other Conditions		.34**
Adjusted R ²	.20	.31
R ²	.20	.32
ΔR^2		.11**

N = 781

** $p < .001$

conditions over the two time points, $F(2,778) = 60.37, p < .001, \eta^2 = .13$. Furthermore, the planned contrasts revealed that the post-realistic job preview expectations of those in the work-family realistic job preview condition were significantly different from the expectations of those in the control condition, $F(1,778) = 6347.85, p < .001, d = .69$. Contrary to expectations, planned contrasts revealed that there were no significant differences between the work-family and job-related realistic job preview conditions in time one, but there were significant differences between the two realistic job preview conditions and the control condition at time one (work-family: $F(1,778) = 36.76, p < .001$; job-related: $F(1,778) = 21.96, p < .001$). Visual inspection of the means revealed that the pre-realistic job preview ratings were abnormally high for the participants in the control condition. Again, I cannot claim that it the work-family realistic job preview *in particular* changed individuals' expectations, as the planned comparison between the control condition and the job-related realistic job preview

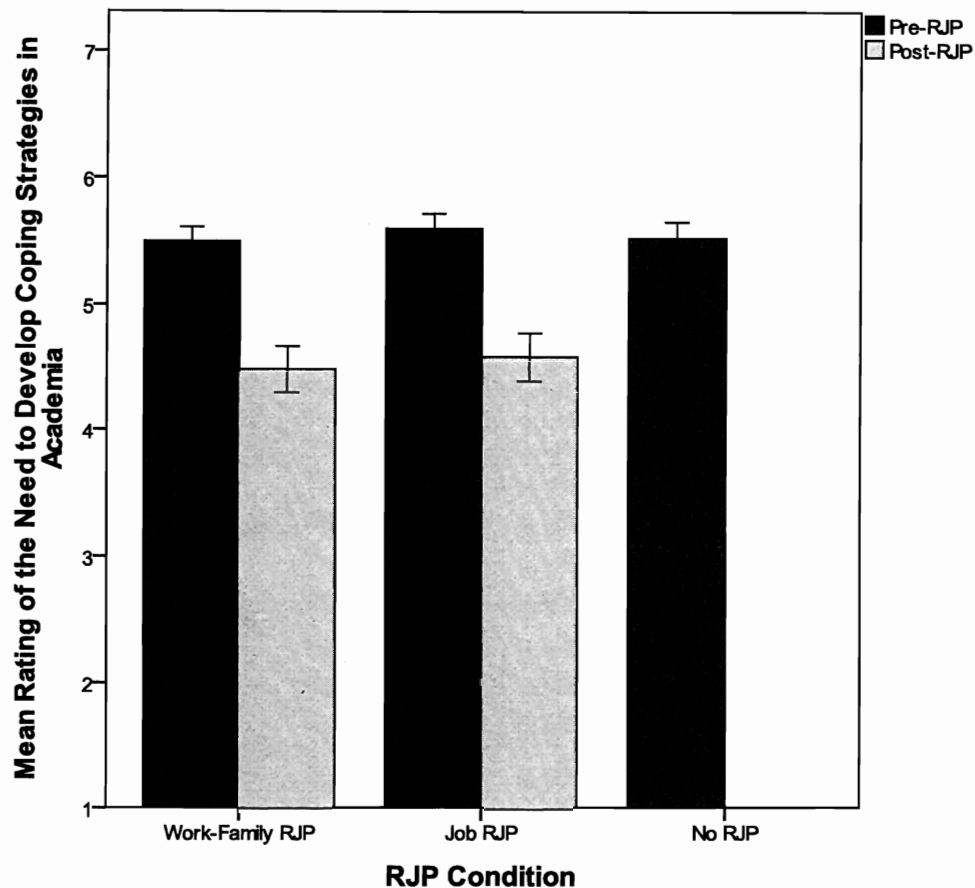


Figure 2. Influence of condition on post-realistic job preview participant ratings of the need to develop coping strategies in academia. Error bars represent ± 2 SE.

condition was also significant, $F(1,778) = 6322.47, p < .001, d = .64$. The difference between the two realistic job preview conditions (work-family and job-related) was not significant, $F(1,778) = 1.73, p = .19$. The mean scores for each group included in the ANOVA are illustrated in Figure 2. Thus, the decrease in need for developing coping strategies rating indicates that those in the work-family and job-related realistic job preview conditions felt less concerned about the need to develop coping strategies in the future after viewing the realistic job preview than they did before viewing the realistic job preview. Furthermore, it appears that something about both realistic job previews altered expectations about developing coping strategies. Part one of the hypothesis was

supported as there was a change from pre- to post-realistic job preview. However, the second part of the hypothesis, that the change would be greater in the work-family condition than in the job-related condition was not confirmed.

As predicted, hypothesis 2c was partially supported by the data. A regression of post-realistic job preview ratings of perceived institutional honest and integrity on realistic job preview condition controlling for pre-realistic job preview rating showed that condition predicted rating over and above the participant's pre-realistic job preview rating (Model 2 Adjusted $R^2 = .49$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .001$). The model is depicted in Table 8. Additionally, I undertook an analysis of group differences to find potential mean differences across condition and time. The omnibus repeated-measures ANOVA revealed a significant difference between the three realistic job preview conditions over the two time points, $F(2,778) = 20.05$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .05$. Furthermore, the planned contrasts revealed that the post-realistic job preview expectations of those in the work-family realistic job preview condition were significantly different from the expectations

Table 8. Influence of Condition on Post-Realistic Job Preview Participant Ratings of Perceived Institutional Honesty and Integrity

	Model 1	Model 2
Pre-RJP Perceived Institutional Honest and Integrity	.68**	.69**
Work-Family RJP v. All Other Conditions		-.17**
Job RJP v. All Other Conditions		-.13**
Control v. All Other Conditions		.
Adjusted R^2	.47	.49
R^2	.47	.49
ΔR^2		.02**

N = 781

** $p < .001$

of those in the control condition, $F(1,778) = 3863.48, p < .001, d = .25$. Additional contrasts revealed that there were no significant differences between the three conditions in time one, indicating that the difference in the time two score is attributable to the realistic job preview. Again, I cannot claim that it the work-family realistic job preview *in particular* changed individuals' expectations, as the planned comparison between the control condition and the job-related realistic job preview condition was also significant, $F(1,778) = 3824.55, p < .001, d = .16$. The difference between the two realistic job preview conditions (work-family and job-related) was not significant, $F(1,778) = 1.18, p = .28$. The mean scores for each group included in the ANOVA are illustrated in Figure 3. Thus, the decrease in institutional integrity and honest ratings indicate that those in the work-family and job-related realistic job preview conditions felt less certain that their academic institutions would treat them honestly after viewing the realistic job preview than they did before viewing the realistic job preview. Furthermore, it appears that something about both realistic job previews altered expectations about perceived institutional honesty and integrity. Part one of the hypothesis was supported as there was a change from pre- to post-realistic job preview. However, the second part of the hypothesis, that the change would be greater in the work-family condition than in the job-related condition was not confirmed.

Finally and as predicted, hypothesis 2d was partially supported by the data. A regression of post-realistic job preview ratings of the likelihood that they would remain in academia on realistic job preview condition controlling for pre-realistic job preview rating showed that condition predicted rating over and above the participant's pre-

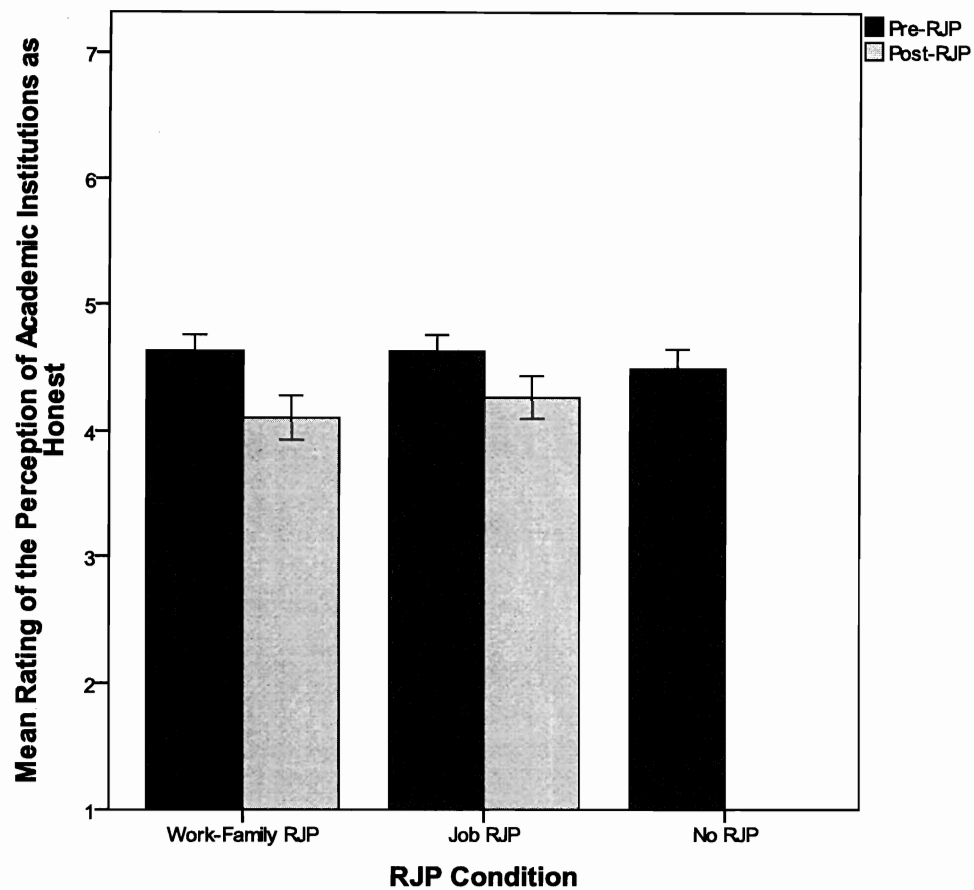


Figure 3. Influence of condition on post-realistic job preview participant ratings of perceived institutional honesty and integrity. Error bars represent ± 2 SE.

Table 9. Influence of Condition on Post-Realistic Job Preview Participant Ratings of the Likelihood They Would Remain in Academia

	Model 1	Model 2
Pre-RJP Likelihood of Remaining in Academia	.77**	.78**
Work-Family RJP v. All Other Conditions		-.08**
Job RJP v. All Other Conditions		-.09**
Control v. All Other Conditions		.
Adjusted R ²	.60	.61
R ²	.60	.61
ΔR^2		.01**

N = 781

** $p < .001$

realistic job preview rating (Model 2 Adjusted $R^2 = .61$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .001$). The model is depicted in Table 8. Additionally, I undertook an analysis of group differences to find potential mean differences across condition and time. The omnibus repeated-measures ANOVA revealed a significant difference between the three realistic job preview conditions over the two time points, $F(2,778) = 8.27$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .02$. Furthermore, the planned contrasts revealed that the post-realistic job preview expectations of those in the work-family realistic job preview condition were significantly different from the expectations of those in the control condition, $F(1,778) = 2291.62$, $p < .001$, $d = .14$. Additional contrasts revealed that there were no significant differences between the three conditions in time one, indicating that the difference in the time two score is attributable to the realistic job preview. Again, I cannot claim that it the work-family realistic job preview *in particular* changed individuals' expectations, as the planned comparison between the control condition and the job-related realistic job preview condition was also significant, $F(1,778) = 2348.12$, $p < .001$, $d = .09$. The difference between the two realistic job preview conditions (work-family and job-related) was not significant, $F(1,778) = .03$, $p = .87$, $\eta^2 < .01$. The mean scores for each group included in the ANOVA are illustrated in Figure 4. Thus, the decrease in likelihood of remaining in academia ratings indicate that those in the work-family and job-related realistic job preview conditions felt less certain that they would pursue a career in academia after viewing the realistic job preview than they did before viewing the realistic job preview. Furthermore, it appears that something about both realistic job previews decreased the likelihood that individuals would remain in academia. Part one of the hypothesis was

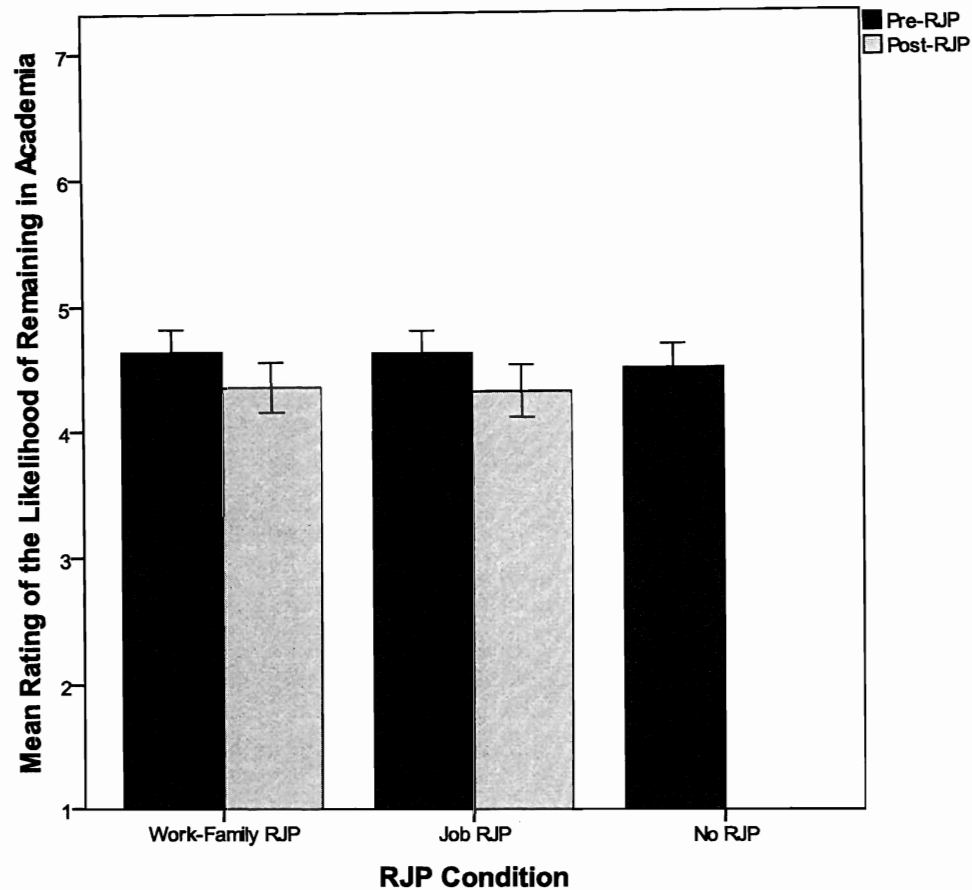


Figure 4. Influence of condition on post-realistic job preview participant ratings of the likelihood they will remain in academia. Error bars represent ± 2 SE.

hypothesis, that the change would be greater in the work-family condition than in the job-supported as there was a change from pre- to post-realistic job preview. However, the second part of the related condition was not confirmed.

Overall, it appears that the realistic job preview, whether based on work-family or job-related information, changed participants' assessment of their expectations.

Hypothesis 3 stated that participants exposed to a work-family realistic job preview would place more importance on work-family related factors during their job search (H3a-c), rate their chosen department as more family-friendly (H3d), and choose jobs with more published family-friendly policies on their webpage than would participants who had been exposed to a job-related realistic job preview or those who

were not exposed to a realistic job preview (control; H3e). This hypothesis was tested using a MANOVA. The independent variable was the realistic job preview condition that the participant was exposed to (job-related realistic job preview, work-family-related realistic job preview, or control conditions). The dependent variables were the family-friendly information sought during the job search, the family-friendly rating of the institution, and the family-friendly ratings of the department. Work-family factors in the job search (H3a-c) were measured in three ways: 1) the extent to which their current situation matched their *original* desire for work-family factors at an institution, 2) the correspondence between their ideal and actual work-family characteristics at their institution, and 3) the amount of work-family information they sought during their job search. Therefore, there were five dependent variables measured in this analysis. Additionally, I conducted a planned contrast to compare the work-family realistic job preview condition to the job-related and control conditions.

A power analysis conducted a priori revealed that I needed at least 236 participants to achieve a power of .85. Unfortunately, I did not obtain the requisite number of participants needed to achieve desired power, but I proceeded with the analysis anyway to search for preliminary results ($N = 72$).

Contrary to predictions, the results of the analysis did not support any of the hypotheses. The Wilkes' Lambda statistic for the omnibus MANOVA indicated no effect for condition, $F(10,126) = .52, p = .87, \eta^2 = .04$. Additionally, between-subjects tests revealed no effect of condition on ratings of the correspondence between original and actual work-family factors at the chosen institution, $F(2,66) = .93, p = .40, \eta^2 = .03$; ratings of the correspondence between ideal and actual work-family factors at the chosen

institution, $F(2,66) = .14, p = .87, \eta^2 < .01$; the amount of information sought regarding work-family factors at the chosen institution, $F(2,66) = .72, p = .49, \eta^2 = .02$; the participants' ratings of their chosen department's family friendliness, $F(2,66) = .26, p = .77, \eta^2 = .01$; or for the published family friendly policy ratings, $F(2,66) = .25, p = .78, \eta^2 = .01$. Additionally, the planned comparison of the work-family realistic job preview and the other two conditions was not significant, $F(5,62) = .29, p = .92, \eta^2 = .02$. Based on this data, it appears that the realistic job preview condition did not significantly affect the job search behaviors of the participants. However, a post hoc power analysis indicated that the observed power of the analysis was .12. More data is needed to determine the actual impact of the realistic job preview, as the current data is not strong enough to be conclusive.

Hypotheses 4a and 4b stated that work-family declarative knowledge score would mediate the relationship between condition and work-family job search behaviors (i.e., work-family characteristics of the job search, the family-friendly ratings of the department, and the ratings of HR published family-friendly policies of the institution) and that this relationship would be stronger for women than for men. Specifically, I proposed that the work-family realistic job preview condition would have more impact on the job search behaviors of individuals than would the other two conditions and that those who scored high in work-family declarative knowledge would seek out organizations with more family-friendly policies than would individuals who scored low on work-family declarative knowledge. Again, work-family factors in the job search were measured in three ways: 1) the extent to which their current situation matched their *original* desire for work-family factors at an institution, 2) the correspondence between

their ideal and actual work-family characteristics at their institution, and 3) the amount of work-family information they sought during their job search. Therefore, there were five dependent variables measured in this analysis. The independent variable was condition, which, being categorical, was dummy coded as being in the work-family realistic job preview condition or not. This relationship was measured with regression. The work-family job search behaviors were entered as dependent variables in five separate regression analyses. The presence of being in the work-family realistic job preview (versus being in one of the other two conditions) was entered as the independent variable in the first step for all five regressions. The work family declarative knowledge score entered in the second step as a mediating variable.

Before running the experiment, I conducted a power analysis to determine the approximate number of participants I would need to achieve a power of .85. In order to find a medium effect with two predictors, I needed more than 115 participants. I did not have the requisite number of participants ($N = 87$), so I was unable to definitively run the analysis. I ran the regression analysis in spite of the lack of power to explore possible preliminary relationships.

Hypothesis 4a stated that the realistic job preview condition would have a significant effect on job search outcome and that this relationship would be mediated by the declarative knowledge test score earned after viewing the realistic job preview, was partially supported. The relationship between realistic job preview condition and the outcome measures could not be established for most of the measures; therefore, I could not evaluate the rest of the model in most cases (Baron & Kenny, 1986). However, in the case that the direct relationship was established, I checked for the mediator.

The unstandardized beta-weight for the relationship between presence in the work-family realistic job preview condition and the correspondence between the ideal and actual institution's work-family factors was not significant ($\beta = .03, p = .94$). Similarly, the relationship between the participant's presence in the work-family realistic job preview condition and the amount of information that the individual sought regarding work-family factors at their chosen institution was not significant ($\beta = .36, p = .34$). The relationship between the participant's presence in the work-family realistic job preview condition and their ratings of the family-friendliness of their chosen institution also was not significant ($\beta = .16, p = .51$). Finally, the relationship between the participant's presence in the work-family realistic job preview condition and ratings of the published HR family-friendly policies of their chosen institution was not significant ($\beta = -.75, p = .16$).

Contrary to the other findings, the unstandardized beta-weight for the relationship between presence in the work-family realistic job preview condition and match between the individual's actual and ideal institution's work-family factors was significant ($\beta = .71, p = .05$). As predicted, the relationship was mediated by the scores on the work-family portion of the declarative knowledge test ($\beta = 1.22, p = .02$). That is to say, individuals who scored higher on the work-family portion of the declarative knowledge test had a stronger match between their ideal and actual institution.

Hypothesis 4b stated that the previously mentioned relationship (condition predicting family-friendly policies as mediated by declarative knowledge score) would be stronger for female participants than for male participants. This relationship is an example of moderated mediation. Participants with high levels of work-family

declarative knowledge were presumed to have internalized the realistic job preview and would make job decisions more directly based on family-friendly policy information than those who scored lower and were presumed to be less aware of the challenges they would face balancing work and family. Due to the nature of gender roles, women would be more likely to internalize the proffered information than would men; therefore, the relationship was predicted to be stronger for them.

As with the previous hypothesis, I did not have an appropriate number of participants for the analysis. However, I did look for moderation in the one part of hypothesis 4a that was significant in order to identify a potentially significant relationship. As predicted, the relationship between condition and the correspondence between original and actual work-family factors, as mediated by work-family declarative knowledge, was stronger for women than for men ($N = 72$, $\beta = 1.23$, $p = .03$ and $N = 13$, $\beta = 1.07$, $p = .40$, respectively). Thus, hypothesis 4b was partially supported. As with the previous hypothesis, the results of this analysis are tenuous due to the lack of participants. There may be similar trends in the other job outcome measures that were not found because of low power. However, from the results of the present analysis, it appears that those in the work-family realistic job preview condition who learned about and remembered more work-family declarative knowledge had a better match between the work-family factors that they originally wanted in an academic institution and what they actually received, particularly for women in the work-family realistic job preview condition.

In addition to the prescribed hypotheses, I undertook an exploratory analysis to find additional justification for the work-family realistic job preview.

Exploratory Analysis

I ran an exploratory analysis to evaluate potential effects of the realistic job preview on job outcomes that were not predicted in the original set of hypotheses. Several of the demographic measures, such as the type of position individuals were interested in pursuing, were measured at both phases of the survey. I sought to answer two general questions with the exploratory analysis. The first was: Did the realistic job preview have any significant interactive effect between phase one and phase two based on gender? If that question did not produce meaningful results, the second question I sought to answer was: Did the realistic job previews have a main effect from phase one to phase two? These questions were evaluated using Chi-squared for situations in which the outcome variable was categorical and ANOVA for situations in which the outcome variables were measured on Likert-style scales. I conducted each of the analyses evaluating gender, realistic job preview condition, and the interaction of the two. Additionally, I explored time as another variable for situations in which data was collected at both time points. However, I should note that not all of the measures that were presented at both time points were equivalent; therefore, the analyses are theoretically rather than literally linked.

Organizational Characteristics

Participants described the institution that they were interested in working at during both data collection phases. During phase one, female participants were overrepresented in their desire to work at an academic institution with a primary emphasis on teaching, while men were overrepresented in stating a desire to work at an

academic institution with an equal emphasis on teaching and research, $\chi^2(3) = 37.68, p < .001$.

Participants who accepted a job offer at the second phase of data collection described their chosen institution. Men were marginally overrepresented in private-sector institutions and underrepresented in institutions with a primary emphasis on teaching, while women were marginally overrepresented in institutions with a primary emphasis on teaching, $\chi^2(5) = 10.60, p = .06$. There was no effect of realistic job preview condition or interaction between gender and condition ($\chi^2(10) = 13.05, p = .22$ and $\chi^2(25) = 29.53, p = .24$).

Interviews

During phase one, there was no significant difference in the number of on-site interviews by gender, $F(1,789) = 2.12, p = .15, \eta^2 < .01$. As should be expected due to random assignment, there also was no effect of realistic job preview condition at phase one, $F(2,789) = .07, p = .93, \eta^2 < .01$.

During phase two, women reported going on more on-site interviews than did men, $F(1,379) = 12.75, p < .001, \eta^2 = .03$. Additionally, there was a significant effect of condition, $F(1,379) = 3.11, p = .05, \eta^2 = .02$. However, there was not a significant interaction between gender and condition, $F(1,379) = 1.09, p = .34, \eta^2 < .01$.

To break this up further, during phase two, participants indicated the number of academic and non-academic on-site interviews that they completed. Women reported completing more academic on-site interviews than did men, $F(1,391) = 11.17, p = .001, \eta^2 = .03$. There was also a significant effect of condition, $F(2,379) = 3.38, p = .04, \eta^2 = .02$, whereby individuals in the control condition completed fewer academic interviews

than did those in either realistic job preview condition. However, there was not a significant interaction between gender and condition, $F(2,379) = 1.51, p = .22, \eta^2 = .01$. Women also reported completing significantly more non-academic on-site interviews than did men, $F(1,385) = 3.97, p = .05, \eta^2 = .01$. There was no significant effect of condition, nor an interaction between gender and condition ($F(2,379) = .13, p = .87, \eta^2 < .01$ and $F(2,379) = .04, p = .96, \eta^2 < .01$, respectively).

Job Offers

During phase one, there was no significant difference in job offers that participants received by gender, $F(1,788) = 1.26, p = .26, \eta^2 < .01$, or condition, $F(2,788) = .24, p = .79, \eta^2 = .01$. However, during phase two, women reported having received more job offers than did men, $F(1,384) = 7.24, p = .01, \eta^2 = .02$. There was no significant interaction between gender and realistic job preview condition. During phase two, women reported having received significantly more academic job offers than did men, $F(1,394) = 10.36, p = .001, \eta^2 = .03$, but there was no gender difference in the number of non-academic job offers received, $F(1,388) = .01, p < .93, \eta^2 < .01$. In neither case was there evidence of a significant effect of condition or an interaction between condition and gender.

Student Status

As described previously in the method section of this manuscript, most of the individuals participating in phase two of this study still listed themselves as students (71.2%) or post-docs (24.7%). In a further exploratory analysis, I examined the changes in student status for participants between phase one and phase two.

Graduate student status. During phase two, women were more likely to indicate that they were still students than were men, $F(1,315) = 7.06, p = .01, \eta^2 = .02$. Additionally, there was a marginal effect of condition, $F(2,315) = 2.68, p = .07, \eta^2 = .02$, wherein individuals in the job-related realistic job preview condition were less likely to still be students. There was no significant interaction between condition and gender, $F(2,315) = .64, p = .53, \eta^2 < .01$.

Post doc status. During phase two two, men were more likely to indicate that they were still post-doctoral student than were women, $F(1,313) = 7.31, p = .01, \eta^2 = .02$. There was no significant effect of condition not and interaction between condition and gender ($F(2,315) = 1.09, p = .34, \eta^2 = .01$ and $F(2,315) = 1.15, p = .32, \eta^2 = .01$, respectively).

Time extended in graduate school or post doctoral program. During phase two, men were much more likely to indicate that they had extended their time in graduate school or in their post-doctoral appointment than were women, $F(1,314) = 16.41, p < .001, \eta^2 = .05$. However, there was no significant effect of condition not and interaction between condition and gender ($F(2,314) = .06, p = .94, \eta^2 < .01$ and $F(2,314) = 1.04, p = .36, \eta^2 = .01$, respectively). This may have been a byproduct of the fact that women went on more on-site interviews and received more job offers than did men in this sample.

Job Search Outcome Measures

In addition to the work-family-related job search behavior measures describe previously, I also collected data on job-related job search behaviors. Specifically, participants rating the correspondence between their ideal and actual chosen institution, the correspondence between their original desired and actual chosen institution, and the

amount of information they sought during their job search did so on job-related factors in addition to the work-family factors examined in hypotheses 3 and 4. I looked for effects in both work-family *and* job-related behaviors in an exploratory analysis.

Ideal work-family conditions. Women overall the work-family-related factors as a closer match between their ideal and actual institution than did men, $F(1,91) = 8.42, p = .01, \eta^2 = .09$. There was no significant effect of realistic job preview condition or and interaction between condition and gender ($F(2,91) = 1.30, p = .28, \eta^2 = .03$ and $F(2,91) = .47, p = .63, \eta^2 = .01$, respectively).

Ideal job conditions. Women also rated job-related factors as a closer match between their ideal and actual institution than did men, $F(1,91) = 5.34, p = .02, \eta^2 = .04$. There was no significant effect of realistic job preview condition or and interaction between condition and gender ($F(2,91) = .61, p = .54, \eta^2 = .01$ and $F(2,91) = .20, p = .82, \eta^2 < .01$, respectively).

Actual work-family conditions. In describing the closeness match between their originally desired institution and the what they actually found for work-family-related factors, there was no effect of gender or condition ($F(1,87) = .02, p = .88, \eta^2 < .01$ and $F(2,87) = 1.84, p = .17, \eta^2 = .04$, respectively).

Actual job conditions. Additionally, there was also no significant differences found by gender or condition for the match between the job-related factors of participants' originally desired institution and their actual institution ($F(1,87) = .09, p = .76, \eta^2 < .01$ and $F(2,87) = 1.93, p = .15, \eta^2 = .04$, respectively).

Information sought about work-family conditions. Women sought marginally more information about work-family-related factors than did men during their job search,

$F(1,84) = 2.99, p = .09, \eta^2 = .03$. There was no significant effect of realistic job preview condition or and interaction between condition and gender ($F(2,84) = .42, p = .66, \eta^2 = .01$ and $F(2,84) = .24, p = .78, \eta^2 < .01$, respectively).

Information sought about job conditions. Women also sought more information about job-related factors than did men during their job search, $F(1,91) = 5.34, p = .02, \eta^2 = .06$. There was no significant effect of realistic job preview condition or and interaction between condition and gender ($F(2,91) = .61, p = .54, \eta^2 = .01$ and $F(2,91) = .20, p = .82, \eta^2 < .01$, respectively).

Department's family-friendliness. In describing the family-friendliness of the department where they accepted a job offer, there was no effect of gender or condition ($F(1,84) = .08, p = .78, \eta^2 < .01$ and $F(2,84) = .41, p = .66, \eta^2 = .01$, respectively).

Rating of published HR policies. In describing the family-friendliness of the department where they accepted a job offer, there was no effect of gender or condition ($F(1,86) = .26, p = .61, \eta^2 < .01$ and $F(2,86) = .65, p = .25, \eta^2 = .03$, respectively).

Discussion

In this study, I found that the work-family realistic job preview changed individuals' expectations about the academic workplace. In hypothesis 1, individuals in the work-family realistic job condition learned about work-family characteristics of jobs in academia. These individuals were able to better answer declarative knowledge questions related to work-family characteristics than were individuals in either a job realistic job preview condition or a control condition. The purpose of this hypothesis was to evaluate the amount of knowledge transfer occurring during the realistic job preview, and see if participants learned and retained the information. Indeed, this pattern emerged

and I can conclude that the work-family realistic job preview meaningfully imparted work-family information on participants in that condition. The results from hypothesis 1 also show that realistic job previews can successfully be used to teach individuals about work-family balance. This is a novel contribution of the current study and might be the focus of additional research. Given the extent to which work-family conflict influences women in academia (and parents in general; Allen et al., 2000; Goulden, 2007), it is critical to consider strategies that might mitigate the negative effects. The current results show one media that might be effective. In addition, work-family related realistic job previews used in academia are more general (rather than organization-specific) and since they have been shown to be effective ways of transmitting information to applicants, academic training programs might consider adopting them to better inform, train, and prepare job applicants.

Hypothesis 2 was also confirmed and I found that individuals who viewed a realistic job preview significantly changed their expectations about academia. Again, this suggests that realistic job previews may be a very useful tool for imparting accurate expectations about academia. Given the few numbers of jobs that exist in academia, the long and infrequent hiring cycle, and the expense of hiring an academician, realistic job previews could focus in on identifying and recruiting applicants who are more likely to stay and be more successful.

The second part of hypothesis 2 predicted that individuals in the work-family realistic job preview conditions would have a larger change in expectations than those in the job-related realistic job preview was not found. This may be due to the fact that the questions asked of participants about expectations were not work-family-domain-specific

(e.g., “I believe I have accurate expectations about academia” and “I believe I will need to develop coping strategies to be successful in academia”). These and other questions asked could apply to either group: job or work-family.

Rather than changing one group more than the other, then, the results indicate that the act of viewing either realistic job preview changed individuals’ expectations. Previous research has shown that work-related realistic job previews are successful in changing people’s expectations (Hom et al., 1999). The current research has expanded previous findings to include a comparable impact of work-family information on creating more accurate expectations.

Perhaps one of the reasons that both realistic job previews worked in near equal measure is because of the underlying mechanism driving the change in expectations. One possible mechanism at work might be the elaboration likelihood model. According to this theory, attitudes can be changed through two types of persuasion: the central route, which requires a good deal of thought, and the peripheral route, which relies on “gut feeling” aspects of presented information (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). In this study, the preview that participants in the non-control conditions did not view may have influenced participants in the treatment conditions to engage in central-route processing. That is, viewing a realistic job preview may have lead individuals to put themselves in the first person, imagine themselves in actual careers, and consider the challenges and benefits of an academic career. As a result of thinking critically about their careers, there expectations may have changed.

Hypothesis 3 was not supported; that is, work-family realistic job previews did not influence job search behaviors. It is possible that no such relation exists. However,

this nonsignificant relation could be attributable to the extremely low power of the MANOVA computed in the analysis. More data is needed to conclusively dismiss this hypothesis.

Finally, hypothesis 4 was partially supported. I found the presence of being in the work-family balance condition predicted the correspondence between original (“what were you originally looking for in a job”) and actual (“what did you actually get in your job”) desired work-family factors. Additionally, this relationship was mediated by work-family declarative knowledge, so that individuals with higher work-family declarative knowledge scores had a stronger relationship between the original and actual measures. Furthermore, this relationship was moderated by gender, being stronger for women than it was for men. So, women were even more likely than men to have a stronger correspondence between original and actual measures if they were higher in work-family declarative knowledge. As with hypothesis 3, there was extremely low power for the analysis of this hypothesis. With more participants, there may be additional significant relations between the work-family realistic job preview and job search behaviors. These results are purely preliminary. It is too soon to determine the extent to which a work-family realistic job preview affects job search behaviors.

Strengths

A major strength of this study is its longitudinal design. By collecting data at two time points spread months apart, I am able to draw causal relationships between my predictors and criteria. Such a study would not be effective in any other format. With this type of design, I was also able to evaluate the extent to which the realistic job preview affected job search behaviors over time. The effects from the first to second phase of data

collection are likely smaller than they would be with a more immediate second phase, meaning that if the effects last, then they are likely substantial.

Another strength of this study is the participant sample that was used to obtain the data. By using a real world sample—graduate students and post doctoral students entering the academic job market—I have gathered data at one of the sources of the “leaky pipeline.” By better understanding this particular group of burgeoning scientists, we can better evaluate some of the reasons that women leave academic, particularly in the sciences. As with any field data, however, there are also problems of participant attrition that are difficult to overcome.

Limitations

Data. Based on the power analysis, I do not have a large enough sample to draw strong conclusions about the effectiveness of using a work-family realistic job preview to change job search behavior. However, I plan to resample those who did not complete the phase two survey and those who had not found positions at the time they took the survey.

Participant attrition is a problem with any longitudinal survey of this kind. I reimbursed participants for their participation in the first phase of this survey, but not the second. I may be able to encourage more people to complete both parts of the study by offering reimbursement in for completing the second phase of the survey.

Job Market. Another potential limitation of this study is the point in American history when the data were collected. Data collection began in the winter of 2008, one year into one of the largest recessions the United States has had since the Great Depression of the 1930s (National Bureau of Economic Research, 2010). According to official data, the current recession ended in June 2009, although recovery takes several

months more. The data for this study was collected right in the middle of the economic crisis, limiting the job opportunities of the participants. Much of this research assumed that individuals would be able to find jobs and be able to choose amongst jobs for a good fit. I was attempting to manipulate the criteria used to evaluate fit, which will only work when individuals feel that they have options. Of the almost 400 individuals who completed the second phase of data collection, less than 100 had obtained jobs, seriously limiting the conclusions I could draw from this data. As mentioned previously, data collection will continue, in the hopes that more individuals will have usable data as the economic climate improves.

Time Lapse. Additionally, the data presented in this study were collected at two time points, spaced one year apart. Initial attempts at data collection resulted in a highly skewed sample with the overwhelming majority being women. In the second wave of data collection, I attempted to create gender parity in the sample by focusing collection on men. While this was necessary for the sake of the study, as gender differences were a main thrust of this research, the fact remains that women in the sample were collected a year before men. It is difficult to say that external factors due to the year of data collection did not have an effect on the data, but I was able to control for year in my study and found no differences that could not be attributable to gender.

Although the waves of data collection did occur a year apart, I was very careful to match the time points to the hiring cycle for each wave. That is to say, all participants received the first survey in the winter and the follow-up survey in the spring, without exception. Although the economy was technically out of recession at the second wave of

data collection, the climate was not so different as to effect job search behaviors and outcomes for the participants.

Future Directions

The most theoretically interesting hypotheses presented in this study have yet to be fully evaluated. There is a pressing need to collect more data to determine the full effect of the realistic job preview on job search behaviors. I plan to follow up this study by collecting additional data from individuals who have already filled out the first phase of the survey and those who had not found employment at the collection time of the second phase of the survey.

Another important step in furthering this research is to find additional outcome measures by which we can evaluate the impact of a work-family realistic job preview. For the purposes of this study, I was interested primarily in the amount of work-family information that participants sought during their job search process and how family-friendly their chosen workplaces were. However, the true measure of success would be if individuals in more family-friendly environments were more productive, more committed, and more satisfied with their organization. The aim of work-family initiatives is, in the long run, to make workers better performers. Future research in this area should focus on these additional criteria.

Conclusions

In conclusion, this study attempted to examine one of the reasons that women leave academic professions, a lack of work-family balance. By attempting to manipulate the expectations that participants had about work-family issues in academia, the study measured the job search outcomes of individuals vying for academic jobs. Although the

data is incomplete, we can draw preliminary conclusions that realistic job preview lead individuals to hold more realistic expectations than they had held before viewing the preview, which then gave them more declarative knowledge about the challenges they would face. This in turn led to some different behaviors on the job search. In the future, perhaps we can stem the flow of women leaving the academic math and sciences by providing them the information they need to make informed decisions about their careers and families.

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Appendix A

Impressions of Academia (Pre- and Post-Realistic Job Preview)

Participants rated all items on seven-point Likert-type scales that ranged from 1 (*not at all agree*) to 7 (*very strongly agree*). Cronbach's alpha for all items in the pre-test was .89 and in the post-test was .94

Belief of Accurate Expectations (pre-test: $\alpha = .90$; post-test: $\alpha = .89$):

1. I believe that I have accurate expectations about academia.
2. I am aware of the reality of academia.
3. I know about the expectations that I should have toward academia.
4. I have clear expectations about a job in academia.

Development of Coping Strategies (pre-test: $\alpha = .87$; post-test: $\alpha = .91$):

1. I will engage in behaviors that will make me more successful in academia.
2. I will use available information to make myself more successful.
3. I will develop strategies to increase my success in academia.
4. I realize that I need to harness coping strategies to be successful.

Impressions of Academic Institutions as Honest (pre-test: $\alpha = .90$; post-test: $\alpha = .93$):

1. I feel that academic institutions are trustworthy.
2. I feel that my institution will act honestly in its dealings with me.
3. I feel that academic institutions want me to succeed.

4. I feel that academic institutions will equip me to be successful.

Thoughts of Self-selection from Academia (pre-test: $\alpha = .90$; post-test: $\alpha = .91$):

1. I feel sure that I want to go into academics.
2. I do not often reconsider my intention to work in academia.
3. I feel happy to self-select into this profession.
4. I feel confident that I want to pursue this career.

Appendix B

Job-Related Realistic Job Preview: Video Transcript

TEXT

The following video presentation is a realistic job preview of the challenges and benefits you will face as a new hire in academia. It is designed to give you information, both positive and negative, about your career.

ACTOR ONE

The transition from a graduate student to an assistant professor may be the hardest adjustment you will have to make in your career. You are likely to be miserable at times, but the pay off—tenure—may be well worth the trouble.

ACTOR TWO

Achieving tenure is a truly rewarding experience. With tenure, you will have the ability to explore topics that interest you, work on long-term projects without needing to “play it safe” or “hedge your bets,” and take on controversial areas without worrying about being fired. These are advantages that the public and private sector simply cannot offer.

TEXT

Many faculty members enjoy the autonomy that comes with gaining tenure.

ACTOR THREE

Be aware of the type of institution you want to work for in the long term. If years of grueling research do not suit you, consider working for a teaching college or university where publications are less important, although you will still need to do *some* research.

TEXT

Institutions with a teaching focus tend to require fewer publications for tenure, although research is still important.

ACTOR FOUR

Part of landing a job in academics is showing that you can put in long hours and work harder than the next person. It may sound like sarcasm, but you should accept that people will expect you to work more than 24 hours a day. You won't be able to do everything asked of you, but you should try to do as much as you can in order to succeed.

ACTOR THREE

There is an oversupply of academicians searching for tenure-track positions in every field. As such, there has been a visible increase in the number of part-time and non-tenure-track positions at universities.

TEXT

The current labor market has affected academia. There has been an increase in non-tenure-track and part-time positions.

ACTOR ONE

Full-time faculty work an average of 52 hours per week, although the range goes from 50-80 hours per week. You should expect to teach three or four semester-long courses each year. The time necessary for preparation is often underestimated. Assistant professors spend an average of 55% of their work time preparing for classes and teaching.

TEXT

University faculty work between 50 and 80 hours per week with an average of 52 hours per week.

ACTOR FOUR

The biggest mistake a junior faculty member can make is not thinking about research until it's too late. Teaching and service are vitally important to your tenure decision, but research is an autonomous practice that you will have to monitor for yourself. Putting it aside for even a semester could lead to problems later. No amount of teaching awards can make up for a lack of research.

TEXT

Faculty members are expected to be active in research, teaching, and service on institutional committees.

ACTOR ONE

The tenure process is rarely fully explained and never applied rigidly. It takes an average of seven years to obtain tenure, but the requirements of tenure change from department to department and year to year.

TEXT

In the U.S., academic tenure is typically awarded after seven years.

ACTOR FOUR

Even though it is the number one predictor of success, assistant professors spend only about 20% of their working hours doing research. 55% of their time is spent preparing for classes or teaching. That's 11 hours per week.

TEXT

Assistant professors spend more of their time on teaching-related activities.

55% of working hours are spent on class preparations and teaching.

20% of working hours are spent on research-related activities.

25% of working hours are spent on service to the institution and other activities.

Professors spend an average of 11 hours per week on teaching-related activities.

ACTOR THREE

I can't say enough about the importance of publications. In our tight labor market, good publications are being required earlier and earlier, even in graduate school. Once you get into a tenure-track position, doing research is not enough for tenure. Publications in respected journals are what you will be judged on.

TEXT

Publications in top-tier journals are the most important predictor of getting tenure.

ACTOR FOUR

Men make up 85% of all full professors, 70% of associate professors, and 60% of assistant professors.

TEXT

Across all fields, men make up the majority of professors.

Assistant professors: 60% men; 40% women.

Associate professors: 75% men; 25% women.

Full professors: 85% men; 15% women.

ACTOR THREE

Women make up only a tiny percentage of academicians in the math and sciences. Of the 250,000 current STEM academics, women make up less than 70,000 of those. Some fields are more disproportionate than others. For example, in engineering, just 3% of full professors are women. At all levels, so assistant, associate, and full professors taken together, women make up only 8% of professors. In computer science the picture is similar; men make up 87% of full professors in computer science.

TEXT

There are currently 245,060 faculty in academic science and engineering. Of those, 60,520 are women.

In computer and information sciences, men make up 87.2% of professors. Women make up 12.7% of professors.

In engineering, men make up 92.2% of professors. Women make up 7.7% of professors.

In physical sciences, men make up 84.1% of professors. Women make up 15.8% of professors.

In life sciences, men make up 69.2% of professors. Women make up 30.7% of professors.

ACTOR TWO

There's something very rewarding about working around others who share your zest for knowledge. Working in an academic department means that you will be exposed to all

sorts of people who have only one thing in common: a desire to learn and share information.

ACTOR ONE

If you are a minority or a woman, you will be asked to serve on a disproportionately larger number of committees without having any relief in other areas. It is important to include service to the school on your list of priorities, as saying 'no' can hurt you, but you must not allow yourself to be overwhelmed with such work.

ACTOR THREE

The biggest frustration for new hires in academics is the feelings of isolation they feel when they first start the job. It takes about 5 semesters for new hires to be fully accepted into their department.

ACTOR TWO

Working in industry, a person can put in years of work, contribute greatly to the organization, and still be downsized out of his or her job. That's just not how it works in academia. Once you have a job, colleges and universities try very hard to hold on to their workforce, even the non-tenured ones. You won't be just another worker.

ACTOR FOUR

The pay for an academic isn't too shabby. In 2006, professors earned over \$73,000 per year on average. Full professors earn an average almost \$100,000 per year. The highest paid jobs tend to be at private universities.

TEXT

The average salary for a faculty member in 2006 was \$73,207 per year.

Full professors: \$98,974

Associate professors: \$69,911

Assistant professors: \$58,662

Instructors: \$42,609

Lecturers: \$48,289

ACTOR TWO

Academia has job security that few other industries can match. Once academicians have achieved tenure, only flagrant ethical lapses on their part can get them fired. It is a comfort to know that academic jobs are safe regardless of politics, economic conditions, or managerial whims.

Appendix C

Work-Family-Related Realistic Job Preview: Video Transcript

TEXT

The following video presentation is a realistic job preview of the challenges and benefits you will face as a new hire in academia. It is designed to give you information, both positive and negative, about your career.

ACTOR ONE

For those wishing to balance work with a family, academia has several advantages over the usual office job. For one, many institutions offer family friendly environments with child care and family activities and this trend is on the rise.

TEXT

A growing number of colleges and universities have family-friendly programs for faculty.

ACTOR TWO

While men in academics work about eighty-five hours per week on job and home responsibilities, women work over one hundred hours per week.

TEXT

Men work an average of 85 hours per week on home and work responsibilities.

Women work over 100 hours per week on home and work responsibilities.

ACTOR THREE

About 40% of tenured women have children, but they tend to start having children later in life, usually right after getting tenure. 70% of tenured men have children.

TEXT

70% of men with tenure have children. 40% of women with tenure have children.

ACTOR ONE

Many academic institutions offer resources to employees with families that they could not get elsewhere. Take dual-earner support for example. A growing number of schools are now offering job search support for the spouses of academic hires as part of their recruitment packages.

TEXT

Many colleges and universities offer support services for the spouses of new hires.

ACTOR FOUR

Although a sizable proportion of faculty members, male and female, would like to work fewer hours so as to have more time for family, they rarely utilize family-friendly policies such as part-time and family-related leave.

TEXT

Although most institutions have published family-friendly policies, employees rarely use them.

Family friendly policies include:

- Flextime

- Telecommuting

- Maternity/Paternity leave

- Primary caretaker leave

- Childcare

- Eldercare

Reduced work hours

Dual-career support services

Alternative work scheduling

The Family and Medical Care Leave Act (1993) guarantees that individuals can take at least 12 weeks unpaid time off from work to tend to a newborn or sick family member.

ACTOR THREE

There is a significant bias against working mothers in academia. They are thought to be undevoted researchers and bad mothers. However, men also encounter barriers to child-rearing. They often face stereotypes of men as detached from child-care responsibilities and so are unlikely to find support for their desire for work-family balance.

ACTOR FOUR

Half of women in tenured positions do not have any children in the household twelve to fourteen years after earning their Ph.D. In a survey from 2003, 40% of women in academia said they had fewer children than they wanted.

TEXT

50% of tenured women do not have children 12-14 years after earning their Ph.D.

40% of women in academia say they have fewer children than they want.

ACTOR THREE

Only one third of women who achieve tenure status before they have children ever have any children at all. Those who do have children tend to work in non-tenure-track jobs like lecturers or part-time professors.

TEXT

Of women who attain tenure, only 1/3 have children after the tenure decision.

ACTOR FOUR

About 44% of female academics who have children work in part-time and non-tenure-track positions. These positions tend to offer more flexibility and less stringent publication and service requirements. If you really want to teach and don't want to be bothered with the other stuff, it's a good option.

TEXT

44% of female academicians who have children work in non-tenure track positions.
23% of male academicians who have children work in non-tenure track positions.

ACTOR ONE

Having the autonomy of academic life can really be a huge help in planning a family. Being able to schedule your research, teaching, and service duties, at least to a degree, can really help ease the stress of balancing work and family.

ACTOR THREE

Married women with children work fewer hours, have fewer publications, and are less likely to attend conferences than other groups (for example: women without children or men).

TEXT

Female academicians with children:

Publish fewer articles

Work Fewer hours

Attend fewer conferences

ACTOR TWO

About 11% of women and 7% of men stay single because of their career in academic. For those who are married, women are more than twice as likely to get a divorce than men after reaching tenure. The reason cited most often as the cause of divorce is stress from the number of hours academicians spend at work.

TEXT

11% of women report that they have stayed single because of their careers in academia.
7% of men report that they have stayed single because of their careers in academia.
Tenured women are twice as likely as tenured men to get a divorce.

ACTOR THREE

Any chronological time gaps in a curriculum vita need to be explained or this might be held against you. Applicants who are not of traditional junior faculty age are likely to have this irrelevant fact considered against them.

TEXT

New hires may be penalized for chronological time gaps in their curriculum vitae due to maternity leave or sickness.

ACTOR TWO

There are some significant benefits to balancing work and family well. People with active work and home lives tend to report better psychological health, better life and job satisfaction, and better physical health even though they also have more stress.

TEXT

Although individuals with multiple roles (work and family) report more stress, they also report:

Better physical health

Better mental health

Higher life satisfaction

Higher job satisfaction

Better well-being and happiness

ACTOR TWO

Working in academia has several benefits like flexibility in work hours, summers with a lighter work load, and autonomy over work styles and project choices.

TEXT

Benefits of working in academia:

Flexibility of scheduling

Summers with lighter workloads

Autonomy of work hours and project load

ACTOR ONE

Many academicians with families appreciate how their work schedules match up with their kids' school schedules. It certainly makes planning family time easier when you have a summer or winter break that coincides with your child's.

Appendix D

Declarative Knowledge Test: Work-Family-Related

This test was given as multiple choice. The correct response is in bold.

1. What proportion of tenured faculty women have children in their household 12-14 years after earning their Ph.D.?
 - a. 20%
 - b. **35%**
 - c. 50%
 - d. 70%
2. What do married women with children do less than other groups (i.e., women without children, men)?
 - a. Publish papers
 - b. Attend conferences
 - c. Work the full number of hours
 - d. **All of the above**
3. Which of the following is NOT an example of a family-friendly policy?
 - a. Dual-career job search services
 - b. Child care
 - c. **Unpaid medical leave**
 - d. Primary caretaker leave
4. How many hours do men work on the job and at home?
 - a. 45 hours on the job and at home
 - b. **70 hours on the job and at home**

- c. **85 hours on the job and at home**
 - d. 95 hours on the job and at home
 - e. 100+ hours on the job and at home
5. How many hours do women work on the job and at home?
- a. 45 hours on the job and at home
 - b. 70 hours on the job and at home
 - c. 85 hours on the job and at home
 - d. 95 hours on the job and at home
 - e. **100+ hours on the job and at home**
6. Of the women who do not have children before starting their tenure-track position, how many have children eventually?
- a. 1/4
 - b. **1/3**
 - c. 1/2
 - d. 2/3
7. Which of the following is commonly found among men and women who are engaged in multiple roles (i.e., work and family)?
- a. They have more stress
 - b. They have better psychological wellbeing
 - c. They have higher job satisfaction
 - d. **All of the above**
8. What percentage of women who have children work in non-tenure track positions (e.g., lecturer)?

- a. Less than 25%
 - b. More than 25% but less than 50%**
 - c. More than 50% but less than 75%
 - d. More than 75%
9. What percentage of tenured men have children?
- a. 40%
 - b. 55%
 - c. 70%**
 - d. 85%
10. What percentage of tenured women have children?
- a. 33%
 - b. 44%**
 - c. 55%
 - d. 66%
11. According to the Family and Medical Leave Act, for what length of time is a parent allowed unpaid maternity/paternity leave?
- a. 4 weeks
 - b. 12 weeks**
 - c. 24 weeks
 - d. 30 weeks
12. Tenured faculty women are how much more likely to be single without children than men?
- a. Less than half as likely as men

- b. Just as likely as men
 - c. About 50% more likely than men
 - d. **Twice as likely as men**
13. What is commonly reported as the biggest contributor to work-family stress?
- a. Number of dependents
 - b. Anti-family culture of the academic department
 - c. **Number of hours spent at work**
 - d. Lack of support from spouses or significant others
14. What percentage of tenured faculty women surveyed in 2003 said they had fewer children than they wanted?
- a. 10%
 - b. 20%
 - c. 30%
 - d. **40%**
15. What percentage of tenured faculty say that they have stayed single because of their career?
- a. Men at 11%; women at 7%
 - b. **Men at 7%; women at 11%**
 - c. Men at 11%; women at 11%
 - d. Men at 7%; women at 7%

Appendix E

Declarative Knowledge Test: Job-Related

This test was given as multiple choice. The correct response is in bold.

1. What is the average number of hours worked by full-time faculty per week?
 - a. 30
 - b. 50**
 - c. 70
 - d. 90
2. What percentage of professors in STEM are men?
 - a. 30%
 - b. 50%
 - c. 70%**
 - d. 90%
3. Which of the following is true about academia?
 - a. Academicians have a great deal of flexibility in setting their schedules
 - b. Academicians should expect to work more than 40 hours per week
 - c. Academicians have a significant amount of autonomy over their research
 - d. All of the above are true**
4. Which of the following fields has the greatest proportion of female professors?
 - a. Physical sciences
 - b. Biological and life sciences**
 - c. Computer and information sciences
 - d. Mathematics

5. Which of the following fields has the greatest proportion of male professors?
 - a. Computer and information sciences
 - b. Engineering**
 - c. Social Sciences
 - d. Biological and life sciences
6. Which of the following is NOT typically a job responsibility of an academician?
 - a. Service to the institutional committees
 - b. Research
 - c. Student instruction
 - d. Service on an editorial board**
7. What is the ratio of male to female full professors in the field of physical science?
 - a. 10:1**
 - b. 5:1
 - c. 2:1
 - d. 1:1
8. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, which of the following types of institutions had the highest mean salary in 2006?
 - a. Public universities
 - b. Private universities**
 - c. Religiously-affiliated universities
9. On what does an assistant professor spend most of his or her time?
 - a. Teaching and class preparations**
 - b. Research activities

- c. Grant writing
 - d. Committee membership
10. On average, what percentage of time does an assistant professor spend on research?
- a. 5%
 - b. 20%**
 - c. 50%
 - d. 85%
11. How many hours does the average assistant professor spend in the classroom per week?
- a. 7 hours per week
 - b. 9 hours per week
 - c. 11 hours per week**
 - d. 13 hours per week
12. What is commonly described as the most important factor in reaching tenure?
- a. Research interests
 - b. Publications**
 - c. Lucrative grants
13. What is the average amount of time from hiring until tenure?
- a. 5 years
 - b. 6 years
 - c. 7 years**
 - d. 8 years

14. What was the average salary for a full-time faculty member in the United States in 2006?
- a. \$40,000
 - b. \$55,000
 - c. **\$70,000**
 - d. \$85,000
15. What is the number one complaint of new academicians?
- a. Lack of funding
 - b. Number of work hours
 - c. Pressure to publish
 - d. **Feelings of loneliness**

Appendix F

Video Manipulation Check

Participants rated all items on seven-point Likert-type scales that ranged from 1 (*not at all agree*) to 7 (*very strongly agree*).

1. This video was informative.
2. I already knew this information.
3. This information new to me.
4. Learning about this information makes me think about coping skills.
5. Learning this information makes me feel that I can meet the challenges of this profession.
6. Learning this information surprises me.
7. Learning this information strengthens my commitment to my chosen profession.
8. This video did little to change my beliefs about academia.

Appendix G

Job Search Results

The following questions were given to all participants:

1. How attracted were you to pursuing each type of job? (Participants rated items on seven-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 [*not at all attracted to this job*] to 7 [*extremely attracted to this job*])
 - a. An academic job
 - b. A non-academic job
2. Academic Jobs (All items were free response)
 - a. How many academic job offers did you receive?
 - b. How many phone interviews did you complete for an academic position?
 - c. How many on-site interviews did you complete for an academic position?
 - d. How many official job offers did you turn down for academic jobs?
 - e. How many on-site visits did you turn down?
3. Non-academic Jobs (All items were free response)
 - a. How many non-academic job offers did you receive?
 - b. How many phone interviews did you complete for a non-academic position?
 - c. How many on-site interviews did you complete for a non-academic position?
 - d. How many official offers did you turn down for non-academic jobs?
 - e. How many on-site visits did you turn down?

The following questions were given only to participants who indicated that they had not accepted a job offer:

1. Are you still a student?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
2. Did you extend your time in a graduate program or post doc?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
3. Had you planned on getting a job?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
4. Are you a post doc?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
5. Please describe your situation in detail. (Item was free response)
6. If you turned down an official job offer, please describe why you chose not to accept. (Item was free response)

The following questions were given only to participants who indicated that they had accepted a job offer:

1. Where did you accept a job offer? (Item was free response)
2. If applicable, what is your position's job title? (Item was free response)
3. Which of the following best represents the type of organization where you have accepted employment?
 - a. Academic institution with a primary emphasis on teaching
 - b. Academic institution with a primary emphasis on research
 - c. Academic institution where research and teaching are emphasized equally
 - d. Private-sector organization
 - e. Public-sector organization
 - f. Non-profit organization
 - g. Other (please specify)
4. Academic Jobs (All items were free response)
 - a. How many on-site visits did you turn down?
 - b. How many other potential offers for academic jobs (i.e., phone interviews, on-site interviews) did you terminate as a result of taking your job?
 - c. If you turned down an official job offer, please describe why you chose not to accept.
 - d. How many other potential offers (i.e., phone interviews, on-site interviews) for non-academic jobs did you terminate as a result of taking your job?

- e. If you had not accepted your current offer, how many academic job offers do you think you would have gotten?
- 5. Non-Academic Jobs (All items were free response)
 - a. How many on-site visits did you turn down?
 - b. How many other potential offers for non-academic jobs (i.e., phone interviews, on-site interviews) did you terminate as a result of taking your job?
 - c. If you turned down an official job offer, please describe why you chose not to accept.
 - d. How many other potential offers (i.e., phone interviews, on-site interviews) for non-academic jobs did you terminate as a result of taking your job?
 - e. If you had not accepted your current offer, how many non-academic job offers do you think you would have gotten?
- 6. Please describe any other considerations you made when searching for employment. (Item was free response)
- 7. If you received more than one job offer, please describe briefly your reasons for choosing the position you did over the one(s) you did not choose. (Item was free response)
- 8. Please list the institutions you also considered. (Item was free response)

Appendix H

Job and Work-Family Characteristics of the Hiring Institution

Participants rated the following items in response to three prompts:

1. Please consider what you were hoping to get in your ideal position (i.e., what you were originally looking for when you began your job search). Please describe the extent to which the following was important criteria for your ideal position.
2. Please describe the extent to which you actually got what you initially wanted from the institution where you accepted a position.
3. While you were going through the entire interview process at the place where you ultimately accepted a job, how much information did you seek about the following?

Participants rated all items on seven-point Likert-type scales that ranged from 1 (*Not at all a match with my ideal/Not at all matches my actual/ Did not seek any information*) to 7 (*Extremely matches my ideal/Extremely matches my actual/ Sought all the information I could*). Additionally, participants could select “*Not Applicable*” for any item.

Items are marked as job-related (J) or family-related (F).

- | | | |
|----|--|---|
| 1. | Ability to stop the tenure clock for family reasons (e.g., elder-care) | F |
| 2. | Ability to stop the tenure clock for maternity leave | F |
| 3. | Amount of committee work/service to the institution required | J |

4.	Availability of childcare	F
5.	Availability of flextime	F
6.	Availability of resources within the department	J
7.	Collegiality of department	J
8.	Flexibility in selection of courses to teach	J
9.	Friendliness of the campus community	F
10.	Graduate student responsibilities	J
11.	Mentoring programs for junior faculty members	J
12.	Number of publications required for tenure	J
13.	Opportunities for promotion	J
14.	Prestige of the department	J
15.	Proportion of minorities in the department	J
16.	Proportion of women in the department	F
17.	Proximity to parents or siblings	F
18.	Proximity to work of spouse or significant other	F
19.	Required teaching course load	J
20.	Salary	J
21.	Size of the department (larger than average in this field)	J
22.	Size of the department (smaller than average in this field)	J
23.	Research quality	J
24.	Teaching focus	J
25.	Location	J

Appendix I

Perception of Departmental Family-Friendly Policies

Participants rated all items on seven-point Likert-type scales that ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Participants were given the following instructions: "Please rate your agreement with the following statements in reference to the institution where you have accepted employment."

1. From my conversations with faculty in the department, it seems like this place cares a lot about female faculty members.
2. Given what I have seen in this department, faculty have a fairly easy time balancing work and family.
3. From what I have seen, the department chair strongly encourages family-friendly policies such as family leave and flextime.
4. I consider this department to be very pro-family.
5. Given what I have seen, this department allows faculty members flexibility with work hours and schedules.
6. From what I have seen, discrimination on the basis of gender is common in this department. (Reverse-scored)
7. Faculty members with children are ostracized in this department. (Reverse-scored)

8. Faculty members feel free to take time off for family reasons when necessary.
9. In my experience, departmental resources such as funding and equipment are shared equally among male and female faculty members.
10. Given what I have seen in this department, men have an easier time achieving tenure than women. (Reverse-scored)

Appendix J

HR Published Family-Friendly Policies

Raters marked “yes” or “no” according to whether the given question was "true of this organization" or "not true of this organization." Scores were determined as one point per "true of this organization" response, unless item is reversed scored (marked (R), in which case a "not true of this organization" response receives one point).

1. Does the organization offer any onsite childcare?
2. Does the organization offer free onsite childcare?
3. Does the organization display the Family and Medical Leave Act (1993) prominently on their Human Resources website (i.e., 12 weeks leave per annum)?
4. Does the organization relieve teaching, research, and committee duties for primary caregiver leave?
5. Is employee accrued benefit time (e.g., vacation and sick days) automatically used when on family leave? (R)
6. Is the tenure clock stopped for family leave?
7. Is the tenure clock stopped for primary childcare leave?
8. Does the organization provide pay for primary childcare leave?
9. Does the organization provide medical benefits for primary childcare leave?
10. Is reinstatement guaranteed after a family/medical leave?
11. If two partners work at the same organization, is each allowed to take a full 12-weeks family leave per annum?

12. May leave be taken as a reduced work schedule?
13. Does the organization offer benefits to part-time employees?
14. Can employees accrue benefit time indefinitely?
15. Do the 12 weeks of leave have to be consecutive? (R)
16. Does the organization have a published equal-opportunity, affirmative action, or non-discrimination policy?
17. Does the organization employ an EEO (Equal Employment Opportunities) Officer?
18. Does the organization have a published anti-sexual harassment policy?
19. Does the organization have a published procedure for dealing with sexual harassment claims?
20. Does the organization offer resources for childcare?
21. Does the organization offer resources for eldercare?
22. Does the organization offer dual-career support services (i.e., spouse/ significant other placement)?